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My Lord Duke,

I have the honour to submit to you the Report which I have been directed to draw up on the Labour Question in France.

At Easter 1892 I was directed to proceed to Paris to explain, for the information of Her Majesty's Ambassador, the exact details of the facts which were required by the Commission, and to place at the disposal of the Embassy a précis of some of the literature in the possession of the Commission which was likely to be of use. The result of my mission was the report of Mr. Condie Stephen, of which mention is made in the following pages.

Early in 1893 further information was, however, considered requisite. It was gradually collected, and in August 1893 I was again directed to proceed to Paris to obtain the latest official data and incorporate them in my report.

It was intended to reserve the maps as far as possible for the final volume of this series, but it has been found necessary, from the extremely complicated nature of the questions here treated, to make a considerable use of maps as well as diagrams. An attempt has been made to utilise for the purposes of the report the large masses of official statistics which have been collected from various sources, and this has considerably added to the labour of preparing it.

I may be permitted here to express my thanks to the Marquis of Dufferin and Ava, Her Majesty's Ambassador at Paris, and the different members of the staff of the Embassy, especially Sir Joseph Crowe, for the courtesy which they have at all times shown to me as Secretary of this Commission. I should also like to acknowledge the kindness which the Director and staff of the Office du Travail, especially Monsieur Fontaine and Monsieur Focqué, have shown in forwarding to me official information as to the Labour Question in France. To Monsieur Dubois, Secretary of the Comité de Legislation Etrangère at the Ministry of Commerce, to Monsieur Paul de Rousiers, Monsieur Glasson, Monsieur Charles Robert, Monsieur de Boyve, and many friends in different parts of France, I am deeply indebted for books and pamphlets and information which I should not have been able to obtain without their assistance.

I am,
Your Grace's obedient servant,
GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

To
His Grace the Duke of Devonshire, K.G.,
Chairman of the Royal Commission on Labour.

REPORT ON THE LABOUR QUESTION IN FRANCE.

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REPORT ON THE LABOUR QUESTION IN FRANCE.

AUTHORITIES.

STATE AND OTHER DOCUMENTS ON WHICH THE MATTER CONTAINED IN THIS REPORT IS BASED.

The form of a report on the labour question in France is determined in a special way by the existing state of the literature to be consulted. For large parts of the subject there is as yet no philosophical literature at all. So far as French writers themselves are concerned the history of the modern labour movement has yet to be written, and the primary authorities are the Statutes, Parliamentary Bills (*projets et propositions de loi*), and Reports of State Commissions and Parliamentary Committees; while so far as writers in other countries are concerned the inquiry has not been carried beyond the main turning point in the movement. These statements are most strikingly illustrated by the fact that the inquirer into the economic development of modern trade organisations has no later text-book than the treatise of Dr. Lexis on *Gewerkvereine und Unternehmerverbände*, while this work was published just before legal recognition was given to the syndicates by the law of March 21st, 1884. Since that date the whole movement towards organisation has developed a new character, and the strength of it may be partially gauged by a glance at the table on page 18. Notable exceptions to these statements must also be acknowledged, and the new works on agricultural syndicates, which form so essential a factor in the labour situation in France, still remain to be fully made use of; the small but excellent volume of the Comte de Rocquigny was published after the section on this part of the report had been written from the large semi-commercial and statistical volume of M. Hautefeuille. In general the statistical data for the sections on syndicates and strikes are already voluminous and are steadily being issued by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry or other State Departments, and, by the special courtesy of the director of the *Office du Travail*, use has been made in an Appendix of the advance sheets of a forthcoming report on strikes in 1892. If these documents and the statistics they contain were more carefully analysed throughout, they would be of the very highest value; the year-book of trade syndicates, for example, would furnish all that the statesman or economist could require if it contained even a slight indication of the aims and constitutions of the most important associations. The tables relating to syndicates on pp. 24–5 and 28, and the tables relating to labour exchanges on pp. 29–30 are instances of the attempts here made to summarise the available materials. Difficulties have arisen in more than one instance through discrepancies as between stated totals or averages and the detailed figures on which they are based, *e.g.*, those relative to strikes on p. 32; the averages given in the table of children's wages, Appendix X., pp.114–6, may be cited as another example.(1) A series of special departmental publications, such as the reports of the higher council of labour, and volumes setting forth results of special inquiries by the *Office du Travail* make important additions to the material for the contemporary economic historian. The volumes on the *Bureaux de Placement* and on conciliation and arbitration before the passing of the law of December 27th, 1892, form the basis of the sections on these subjects in this report. The results of the great inquiry into wages and hours yet remain to be added to the other statistical materials. Setting aside the invaluable *Statistique de l'Industrie Minérale*, for the conditions in the mining and cognate industries, and the great philosophical work of M. Baudrillart for conditions of labour in agriculture, the information on wages and hours has had to be gathered from a number of miscellaneous sources, of which the pamphlets by members of the *Société de la Réforme Sociale* and the Report of the *Jury International* of 1889 are most valuable. The significance for France of its agricultural life is shown both by the completeness of information and the high standard of the writings to be consulted. M. Baudrillart's work is so cast as to revive the old sentiment for the Provinces while accepting the modern departmental divisions. In this report it has been found most practical to accept generally the smaller geographical divisions for purposes of illustration in so large a subject. The great changes in the legislation for the working classes are amply commented upon by the interesting reports attached to bills before both Chambers. The spirit which animates them and the selected examples of bills and recent statutes to be found in the Appendix show more clearly than any description can do, the actual results of the progress of the socialist tendency in France. The materials for a report on past factory legislation and its operation are ample. Since the publication of the new authoritative text-book of M. Bouquet, on the law of November 2, 1892, the inquirer into present conditions of factory life for women and children will have a satisfactory guide. It remains to mention M. Levasseur's statistical study *La Population Française* as the basis of the information respecting migration of labour.

It has seemed convenient to adopt some general classification of the literature consulted in drawing up the report and the following fivefold division has proved satisfactory:—

I. State and Parliamentary documents—(*a.*) bills, (*b.*) reports, (*c.*) statutes and decrees.

II. Departmental statistics and publications.

III. General literature—(*a.*) French, (*b.*) English, (*c.*) German, (*d.*) Italian.

IV. Reviews, periodicals and pamphlets.

V. British Foreign Office reports and despatches.

A catalogue has been drawn up on this basis.(2)

DIVISION I.—TRADE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED.

A.—INTRODUCTION.

(i.) Distinct phase of the labour question in France.

Two strong tendencies in France have operated to produce a distinct phase of the labour question which, though linked in certain aspects with that of other countries, yet suggests problems which will probably be solved on distinct lines. One of these tendencies is social, the other political, but both seemed rooted in racial characteristics, and appear in many of the special institutions of the country. On the one hand there is the tendency to an individualism which is only tempered by the inclination to form close personal relations where interests coincide, on the other hand there is the general political instinct to regard association as of two kinds only, viz., first the State, highly centralised and strongly armed; secondly, a counterpart of this, the association which is an instrument of revolution, or at least of radical changes. While on the one side law and order is apt to be maintained by readier resort to repressive measures than in England, on the other side the tendency of the governed is towards submission until the spirit of revolt is suddenly aroused. The Commune may have been a recurrence of the revolutionary spirit which has appeared (broadly) at intervals of 25 years since 1789, but it was also a protest, first against excessive centralisation, and secondly against economic oppression of the *bourgeoisie* raised by the democracy of Paris, when it found itself in possession of arms after the siege. It can hardly be doubted that a similar resort to force might recur in our own times if circumstances were favourable. It is probable that a certain dread is working to produce the new official attitude to labour problems in France, which is so striking to the outside observer.(3)

(ii.) Official attitude.

"Every mind," says M. Keufer, member of the Higher Council of Labour, in a report prepared by him as president of a sub-commission on factory and

(1) The French Economists themselves are foremost in pointing out deficiencies in official publications. M. Scherer says of the recent volume of the Labour Office on Conciliation and Arbitration "that its "authors pass by the literature of their subject, and that as a collection "of materials it is incomplete and full of errors." *See* Revue d'Économie Politique, September 1893, p. 856.

(2) *See* Appendix, p. 96.

(3) This paragraph and subsequent passages on the French attitude to associations are strikingly sustained by the last volume of one of the greatest Frenchmen of the century, M. Taine. "The incapacity inherent in modern French society to associate spontaneously for a common interest is intimately linked with the political instability of the country, and springs from the nature of the Napoleonic "administrative "mechanism" and the lack of natural local spheres of political apprenticeship. Cf. Le Régime Moderne, Vol. ii. 1894.

An indication of the working of some of the administrative institutions is given in Appendix XIX., p. 137–9; cf. Appendix XXIII., p. 143.—G.D., 23/11/93.

workshop regulations, "every mind, however little " attentive to the events economic and social that are " taking place in every country is compelled to admit " the favourable mood that is being shown towards the " study of labour questions. . . . . On the one " hand this movement is due to the influence of the " industrial revolution (*transformation économique*) " which is in operation, and its inevitable results; on " the other hand . . . this care for the interests of " the labouring masses results from the danger that " might break out . . . if capitalists (*chefs in-* " *dustriels*) remained hostile to the legitimate and " reasonable demands of the proletariate."(1) These remarks of a member of the council may serve, not less perhaps than the fact of the institution of such a council, which aims at being a sort of "Council of State" for labour, to indicate the temper with which the labour question is being approached officially in France.(2) Far more striking, however, are the chief Government schemes for legislation in labour matters, such as the Pensions, Medical Aid, Popular and Agricultural Credit Schemes, and Insurance Bills.(3) The attitude of the authorities generally is favourable to the aspirations and theories of working class leaders.(4) While, in most cases of outbreak on the part of workmen in combination, actual violence and lawlessness have been put down with a strong hand,(5) still the prevailing disposition is to sympathise with the claims of workmen for better conditions, and to frame labour laws with as much elasticity as possible in their favour. "There is a " widespread feeling in the Chamber that the working " classes are entitled to better conditions of living, and " there is a strong desire on its part to free labour as " much as possible from its weariness, dangers, and " anxieties." But," Legislation as far as the maintenance " of public order will permit, is holding the balance " pretty fairly" between all the forces making for social and industrial change.(6) The tendency shewn by the legislature and central administrative authorities is much more strongly developed in local authorities and especially in the municipalities where the representation of the radicals and socialist labour party is growing continually stronger.(7) Where a check is needed it can hardly be counted on locally unless through the prefectures, which after all directly represent the central authorities. This is well illustrated by the recent conflict between the labour organisations at the Labour Exchange (*Bourse du Travail*), supported by a majority in the Municipal Council, and the Prefecture of the Seine. Administration of the law which requires registration of all trade organisations(8) had apparently tended to become lax. To remedy the irregularity the Government (*i.e.*, the Prefect of the Seine) were "so indulgent as to offer the Labour Exchange a " month in which to obey the law of official registra- " tion."(9) The Municipal Council took up the cause of the irregular syndicates or unions, who declared their intention of continuing to disregard legal formalities, and thus put itself into direct opposition with the Government. " To the kindly caution of the Government " (*aimables ménagements*) the Executive Committee of " the Labour Exchange responded with audacious " defiance; not only were the irregular syndicates re- " commended to remain irregular, but the others were " invited to become irregular and place themselves out- " side the law of 1884."(10) It will appear in the section on Labour Exchanges, how formidable a revolutionary force is potentially enclosed within them. In them the working class leaders, doubtless consciously, hold the instrument for a new Commune. At this point all depends on the firmness with which the law is administered. Opinion in France was divided as to the firmness which was likely to be shown by the Minister of the Interior, M. Dupuy; his address at Albi seemed to affirm his resolution to demand obedience to the law under all circumstances, but in action he seems to have leaned towards the hesitancy which has too often hitherto been shown.(11) In the speech of M. Constans, at Toulouse, on June 5th, a stronger keynote was to be found, and in him may be recognised a possible power of resistance to the growing claims of the labour party.(12) M. Dupuy's subsequent adoption at the same place, of some of M. Constans' points, only makes still clearer the lack of strong convictions in the head of the Government.

Local official attitude.

It is necessary at the outset to call attention to the intimate connexion between the socialist and the labour movements in France and the political and non-political causes and circumstances which brought these movements together. (iii.) The socialist and the labour movements.

Whatever may have been the meaning originally attached in France to the word socialism, and whatever may be the precise body of doctrine to which it may be applied at the present time it is certain, as a writer in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* in 1890, pointed out that it has lost part of the significance of something "violent and somewhat offensive that it had formerly."(13) All parties alike in France are agreed as to the fact of the change. The individualist school declares that the answer to the labour question is one and the same with the answer to the question:(14) Is the labourer to become the blind follower of the revolutionary socialists who "have come to such power as to have no longer need of " dissimulating their ends?" The organs of the Christian Socialist party and of the Social Democrats equally acknowledge the fact of the change, each from its own point of view.

A writer of the Christian Socialist party says in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*: "I need not insist upon the " fact of this irresistible, methodic wave of socialism, " which for some years has been rivetting the attention

(1) Conseil Supérieur du Travail, Deuxième Session. Imprimerie Nationale. Paris. 1892, p. 265.

(2) With regard to the Council of Labour, cf. infra, p. 89. For the Council of State, cf. p. 137.

(3) Cf. infra, pp. 123, 125, 126, 132.

(4) The recent course of events seems to point to a qualification of this statement; the attitude of the authorities might be more aptly described, perhaps, as one of submissiveness to the working class theories and aspirations. Where a stand is made against any particular claims (such as those at the Bourse du Travail) it is apparently made in response to a popular demand.—G.D., 30/9/93.

(5) In some cases of strikes, accompanied by violence, grave complaints have been made of supineness on the part of the authorities, *e.g.* at Carmaux. Cf. infra, p. 43.

(6) Foreign Office Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, pp. XVI., XXVIII-XXX.

(7) Cf. "Journal des Débats," April 24th, 1893. The principal municipal centres of Socialism are Roubaix, Saint-Ouen, and Saint Denis. Congresses of Socialist Municipalities have met in the last two years at the last two mentioned centres. They were forbidden by the Government, but took place all the same under another form.—G.D., 30/9/93.

(8) Cf. infra, p. 99.

(9) "Times," June 14th.

(10) "La Réforme Sociale," June 16th, 1893, p. 972.

(11) Since the above was written the trial of the officials of syndicates affiliated to the Labour Exchange has terminated. The "Times," August 11th, reported that the judgment of the Court completely sustained the action of M. Dupuy in closing the Exchange for refusing to conform to the law. "Sixty-seven of the labour officials accused of " wilfully resisting the law of 1884, which enjoins on the various unions " the duty of registration, are condemned each to 60 francs fine and to " the costs collectively. The immediate dissolution of 38 unions is " decreed, as well as the dissolution of the general committee of the " so-called Executive Commission of the Paris Labour Exchange and " the affiliated exchanges . . . . It was M. Millerand who pleaded " the impossible cause of the recalcitrant unions . . . . The " judgment will be profoundly distasteful to the Labour party." *See* "Times," August 11, 1893.

(12) Since the results of the general election of August 20th and September 4th, 1893, have become clear, showing a definite ranging of the political forces of France along two lines, namely the Governmental Republicans (about 311 in number) and the Socialists and Radicals, (about 234 in number), it has become more evident than ever that the great need of the party of law and order is a strong leader and a positive programme. In the French Chamber, even more than in other Parliaments, a noisy and pertinacious party, though in a minority, such as that composed of revolutionary and radical socialists, has always only too much chance of getting its way. At the present time the minority has not only added to its numbers, but it has also found a leader in M. Réné Goblet, and has developed a definite programme in specific proposals for the application of State and other forms of Socialism. The programme o the Governmental party of Republicans, in so far as it has one, can only be described as negative, the one positive promise of its programm namely, for a National Provident Scheme in a modified form, it shar with the Socialists.

Meanwhile the strong men who might lead the comparatively Con servative party are hardly available. M. Constans, possibly throug personal obstacles in high places to a Parliamentary career, is out of th way in the Senate, M. Floquet is beaten in the elections, and M. Périer president of the Chamber. It is necessary to recollect that M. Dupuy i not certain to back up his lieutenants even after able support from them in maintenance of order, and that he is apt to be at the bidding of a mutinous Parliamentary section. M. Ribot, M. Clémenceau and M. de Freycinet, though belonging to different sections, are not in a position to command a strong or united following.

The party that M. Goblet hopes to lead to various reforms and notably revision of the constitution and separation of Church and State, must be distinguished from one new and important group of supporters. He has expressed an opinion that he will command a compact majority for his proposals among the 500 Republicans, he refuses at the same time to identify himself with the extreme socialist and labour party led by M. Jules Guesde, although he hopes to gain their support. The plan of this latter party is to make itself as directly as possible the "mandatory of the working classes" and to immediately refer all reforms on their behalf that are rejected by the Chamber to the working class constituencies. "It will be seen if in four years with such a system we are not masters in France." This idea was presented to the Chamber during the recent session in a bill by M. Ernest Roche (July 20th, *see* "Journal Officiel" June 21st) which aimed at "assuring " to the people the exercise of its sovereignty and at making its " mandatories responsible at every moment before universal suffrage." The method for bringing this about was to enable a tenth part of any constituency to recall its representative and bring him before a referendum by sending in its electoral cards to the President of the Chamber. The political act of the member would then be placed before the constituency and the whole body of electors would be called upon to vote on the act in question, after a time for reflection of from 15 to 20 days. Sixty-two votes out of 318 were given for this measure.—G.D., 30/9/93.

(13) "Socialisme d'Etat et Socialisme Chrétien," Article by the Count D'Haussonville in the "Revue des Deux Mondes."—June 1890.

(14) *See* especially: "Des Conditions de l'Harmonie dans l'Industrie," article by M. Gibon in "La Reforme Sociale."—May 1st, 1893.

" of Europe, I wish only to indicate the events from " whence its new power arises."(1)

Two forms of socialism (*nuances*) must broadly be distinguished as they are found exemplified in the fighting organisations (trade syndicates) of the workmen. These would generally be described as aiming either at collective or anarchical socialism.(2) For example, in Paris the workers in the cabinet trade (*les ébénos* or *ébénistes du Faubourg*) have among them two organisations opposed to the syndical chamber of employers. Of these the larger, with 1,856 members, *Chambre Syndicale des Ouvriers Ébéniste et du Meuble Sculpté*, is described as being of the collectivist tendency (*nuance collectiviste*) the other, not so large, *L'Union Syndicale du Meuble Sculpté et de l'Ébénisterie*, is of anarchist tendency (*nuance anarchiste*). Both might be classed as revolutionary, but only the latter is extreme.(3)

In general the programmes of the socialist groups approximate to the Gotha programme, the introduction of Marx's ideas into France being chiefly due to the Communards. It was not, however, until the time of the Havre Congress in 1880 that a regular socialist press was organised, and a programme on the lines of the German Social Democrats adopted. At the same time a division of Socialists into three parties, one anarchical, another aiming at social reforms under a republican government (of which M. Clémenceau might be taken as a type and leader), and the third, the revolutionary socialists or labour party, led by M. Guèsde, was definitely established. The first gradually organised themselves in a number of clubs which generally adopted a sort of guerilla warfare against society and authority. Of these the best known is *La Panthère*, to which Louise Michel belonged in 1886, when there were 500 members. The organisation of the other two parties has never been very definite (4) and it is really the municipal socialism, formulated at the St. Étienne Congress, 1882, by M. Brousse, a member of the Paris Municipal Council, which is the strongest and most active in France. By this party, more than 400 "Circles for Social Studies" have been organised all over the country, with a central national executive committee. They have been called "possibilists" by the Guèsdist party, and their chief aim is to municipalise industries and subsidise workmen's associations productive and syndical.

(iv.) Origin of the approximation of the movements.

Existing phases of the labour movement and socialism are to be traced as M. d'Haussonville traces them to very much the same origin. It is impossible to fail to recognise the extreme reaction in French democratic thought and feeling from the individualism of the revolution towards the "discouragement of liberty " which has invaded thought and which makes this " close of the century so different from the opening."(5) While noting the fact that there are philosophical and political motives or tendencies which have helped to determine such a reaction (and that the rise and fall, action and reaction of ideas to be found in all peoples is intensified in the country *par excellence* of ideas); it is the most powerful of the motives that has to be considered now; namely the economic condition brought about by the industrial revolution, joined to the constantly increasing power of the working classes to give expression to their desires and needs. The conditions which gave rise to the strong individualism of the beginning of the century have passed away. The leaders of the revolution, the Tiers-Etat, when they came into power, abolished the guilds (1791) and all state regulation of labour with full confidence in the power of competition to give free scope to every individual workman. "The tone thus introduced into France" was intensified during the empire "by the brilliant positions achieved by men of humble origin."(6)

As the industrial revolution, however, by employment of machinery and other new methods of production gradually put into the hands of the capitalists opportunities that were denied to the artisan thus "divorced from his tools," and as the main hope of the working classes became of necessity more concentrated upon raising and maintaining the market rate of wages, so did the old confidence in individual effort wane. Gradually irregular attempts at association arose, the belief in the advantages of unregulated competition died out, and appeals became more and more frequent to state aid for industry. Democratic leaders changed their text and talked of the utility of transforming a capitalist order into a public service, working, as the case might be, through the State on the one hand or the commune or municipality on the other.

(v.) The Comte Albert de Mun and Catholic or Christian Socialism.

No more distinguished exponent of the tendency to return to State interference can be mentioned than the Comte Albert de Mun.(7) He and his followers base all their latest claims for completer legislative control of industry upon the belief that the workman, reduced to work in the service and at the will of the capitalist, is forced to submit to conditions over which he has no control, and that although there is an exchange of services between the capitalist and his employés, there is indeed no freedom of contract except for the former. The writer in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* above referred to, the Comte d'Haussonville, spoke at that date, 1890, of a coalition which was likely to grow closer between Christian Socialists of the type of the Comte de Mun and other socialists whom he distinguished as *Socialistes d'état* and *Socialistes de chambre* or State socialists and Parliamentary socialists of the ordinary Radical type. His prediction seems verified by a glance at the programme sketched by the Comte de Mun at the recent Catholic Congress. In their efforts to outbid at the same time the liberal economists and the revolutionary collectivists it seems not at all improbable that the Catholic socialists will have to make such considerable compromises in the direction of solialism as to swamp the Christian part of their programme and play into the hands of their most powerful enemies whom they hoped to supersede.

(vi.) Bourgeois legislation and the needs of the industrial classes.

At this point one other important factor in the change in democratic feeling in France must not be overlooked. It is to be found in the omissions as well as the provisions of the civil code wherever it bears upon the life of the labouring classes. With regard to this M. d'Haussonville points out that the code was a code made for the copyholders, *i.e.*, it was prepared by bourgeois lawyers for a bourgeois society. So far as the labouring classes as distinct from the *bourgeoisie* were concerned, the Revolution hardly effected much.(8) The later diffusion of material prosperity effected by the Napoleonic institutions and legislation moreover scarcely touched the life of a class just taking form; this legislation could hardly provide for those who, even if they could have expressed their needs, were hardly yet aware of them. Examples of the omissions in the code referred to might be mentioned, *e.g.* the absence of provision for the recovery of debts by the workman proper, while provision is there for domestic servants. But it is held that the law as it affects compensation for accidents offers the most striking illustrations of the defects of the Code.(9) This point, with the hardships arising out of the interpretation of the law as to employers' liability, will be dealt with later. That class antagonism, of a kind unknown on this side of the Channel, exists to a considerable extent in France, whether due mainly to such defects in law or not, may be recognised even *e.g.* in the common description of individualism as "that *bourgeoisie* philosophy which " has led to the prevalence of the meanest ideas" (*qui a fait triompher les idées les plus basses*), and of an

Class antagonism

(1) (1.) "L'Association Catholique," esp. articles by the Père de Pascal. (2.) "La Revue Socialiste," esp. La Revolution de Demain, by Henri Amiel, 1892-3. (3.) "Revue des Deux Mondes," article by M. de Vogué "L'Heure Presente," January, 1893.

(2) Mr. Stephen in distinguishing revolutionary Socialism from evolutionary Socialism applies the term collectivist to the former. But it may be pointed out that there are convinced collectivists who do not advocate a violent or sudden transformation of society. F. O. Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, pp. iii., iv.

(3) "Ébéniste Parisien de Haut Luxe"; "Ouvriers des Deux Mondes"; Monographie par M.P. Du Maroussem, 2nd series, 29e fascicule, p. 95.

These syndicates are not quoted in the official "Annuaire des Syndicates Professionels"; possibly because they have not complied with the formalities required by the law of March 21st, 1884.

(4) *See* however note (13), p. 10.

(5) "Revue des Deux Mondes," June 1890.

(6) Foreign Office Report, by Mr. Condie Stephen, Miscellaneous Series No. 258, p. iii.

(7) Cf. (1.) Les Discours Politiques et Sociales du Comte Albert de Mun, 4 vols., Paris, 1888, and his recent speech at the Catholic Congress. (2.) "L'Association Catholique," organ of the "cercles catholiques."

(8) Le Code Civil et la Question ouvrière. M. Glasson, Paris Firmin, Diderot, 1891, section 1. See, however, the remarks of M. Leroy Beaulieu in the discussion of M. Glasson's paper at the Académie des Sciences, &c.

"It seemed to the legislators at the end of the last century that " working men were not to be distinguished in general from other " citizens. To-day there is a tendency to treat them as a class apart, " distinguished among all others, and as having a claim in all the details " of their lives to a special treatment. This conception, peculiar to our " own times, has a great defect, which was resisted with supreme energy " by legislators in the end of last century and beginning of this one; " the defect, namely, of breaking into the unity of the nation . . . . . " . . . Special legislation means privilege and injustice." Op. Cit. pp. 93-96.

(9) "Revue Critique de Législation, 1883." Sauzet, Responsabilités des Patrons, I., II. *See* infra, p. 8-32.

eminent French economist (M. P. Leroy-Beaulieu) as "the most devoted servant of the *bourgeoisie*." (1) Recent utterances in the "Bulletin Officiel" of the Labour Exchange, subsidised by the Paris Municipal Council, illustrates this tendency much more strongly. Too frequently strikes and disturbances have to be attributed to a strong distrust and antagonism of the working classes to the bourgeois classes who are so constantly recruited from their ranks.(2)

M. Le Play (3) made it a grave matter of reproach to the *bourgeoisie* that they had neglected to cultivate in their rôle as leaders of industry those personal relations with the working classes which he considered so essential to industrial harmony. They had not, he maintained, grasped the obligations laid upon them by their new position under the social and industrial revolution. Intoxicated by acquisition of the power they had so long sought they worked for their own material interests, forgetting their responsibilities to the nation that lay behind them. They had, he held, prepared by this negligence the new antagonism of classes and anti-social ideas to be found in modern France. But while M. Le Play attributed almost all the social and industrial ills he complained of to the part taken by the *bourgeoisie* after the Revolution, it was to an important section of that same class that he confidently looked for the remedy to come, namely to the rural proprietor.(4)

(vii.) The "depopulation" of France.

Another reproach, coming from all schools of serious thinkers in France which cannot be passed by in a review of the industrial situation is especially directed against the *bourgeoisie*, although it has to be extended beyond their ranks. It is generally traced to the same or a kindred cause, to an exclusive pre-occupation with the nearest material interests (5), a feeling of contentment with that which has been gained, and a jealous refusal to risk its diminution. "If the general birth-rate of France "were equal to that among the flower of the bourgeois "classes, at the close of 200 years not a single French-"man would be left." (6) The writer of these words puts his case somewhat strongly, with a special view to pointing his own (socialistic) remedy. But his next words are echoed by thinkers the most opposed to his tendencies. For the smaller *bourgeoisie* amongst whom the birth rate is almost equally low he "can suggest "no other cause than the settled determination to "limit the number of children. It is through eco-"nomy, through prudence, to spare themselves and "their descendants the cares and fatigues of a too "laborious life, that they have limited families." The same determination is to be found, though certainly in a less degree, in large sections of the industrial and poorer agricultural classes. It is not so much the origins of this tendency that have to be traced at this point. They are perhaps not so simple as the writer quoted would suggest. Account would have to be taken of legal as well as moral and economic facts running through the whole structure of French life. Nor can its importance for French statesmen, who even as far back as 1867 were having their attention urgently directed to it(7) be here estimated. It is simply as a fundamental fact affecting all industrial and agricultural life that it has to be considered. As M. Baudrillart has to point out repeatedly in his great work on the agricultural population of France, there are districts where without immigration of foreign labour, or of labour from provinces less calculating in their habits of mind, the harvests could not be got in, the mines could not be worked, the factories would be diminished. In parts of Normandy the farmers have to depend on Breton immigration. In the north-west of France the mines and factories are largely recruited by Belgian labour. Speaking of the diminution of population in the departments Seine-et-Oise and Seine-et-Marne, M. Baudrillart says: "Here also it is "to moral causes that the decrease must be attributed "rather than to emigration; less even (than to "emigration) can it be attributed to privation. This "voluntary restriction of the population only confirms "our earlier remarks on the eminently calculating "character of the comfortable agricultural popula-"tion of L'Ile-de-France, although here the example "is set by the towns . . . it is not a question of "feeble increase, it is a positive decrease for half of "the departments in the province" (8). This is the same in Picardy as in Normandy. In certain districts in the former province it is a matter of reproach to those who have large families. There it is stated the agriculturists in easy circumstances have followed the example of the rich, and it is only amongst the poorest agricultural labourers that "a very feeble excess of births over deaths" can be discovered. "I firmly believe that this . . . . is a moral "and economic evil. . . . . This calculating "egotism removes a living force from the country "where children are not a source of poverty but of "wealth." Too rapid growth of population, adds M. Baudrillart, although an evil, is a less evil than this systematic depopulation "among the classes who "represent the capacity, the capital, the real intellec-"tual force, moral and material of a nation." (9)

Comparison of M. Baudrillart's views with M. Levasseur's statistical studies.

These statements of an economist who is held by his countrymen as having been impartiality and "conscience itself"(10) should be compared by those who wish to pursue the subject with the conclusions arrived at in the profound statistical study of M. Levasseur "La "Population Française." The local decrease is considered by him to be in itself less significant than M. Baudrillart held, although all the facts as to the slackening growth of the total and the possible political and economic significance of the distancing of France by the other great Powers in this respect are fully admitted.(11) The causes are estimated as being less exclusively moral than M. Baudrillart would have had Frenchmen believe. The whole subject is traced to larger natural as well as moral causes than are now practically within control.(12) "No facts indicate," he says, "that the moral restraint of Malthus is operating "in the degree suggested by so many."(13) Operation of the law of military service, higher education of women, movement of the population from the country into towns, decay of the religious sentiment, and many other characteristics of modern civilisation are reviewed in the light of their tendency to check the growth of a people.(14) France, he suggests, may have a special mission among the great civilised nations by the very lessons that her approach to the stationary state have to teach.(15) No legislation, so far as can be seen, can affect the problem otherwise than mischievously.(16)

Departmental rise and fall in population.

The following Tables I A., I B., drawn from the "Annuaire Statisque," 1891, and from Levasseur's volumes, show the actual rise and fall in the population department by department for the period 1872 to 1886, and for that period the actual increase in population appears as 2,115,982; (2) the population by departments for 1886 and 1890.

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(1) Cf. "La Revue Socialiste," esp. January 1893. pp. 72-9.

(2) *See* "Journal Officiel" for an account of a Memoire by M. Doniol, on the "Alleged Antinomy of the Bourgeoisie and the People in our Political Institutions." The idea of the opposition seems to have been first stated by Louis Blanc.

(3) *Note on Le Play.*—This remarkable French economist was born at Honfleur in 1806, and died at Paris in 1883, having held various important public posts with distinction. The central idea of his writings was to apply (in a new and original way) the methods of the sciences of observation to social studies. For 24 years he devoted six or seven months annually to direct personal observation of the minutest details of all types of working class daily life. His work "Les Ouvriers Européens," which "photographs," according to his own expression, the thirty-six types of working class families which he had set himself to observe, is spoken of by Saint-Beuve as a "model for all reformers." After this task was finished in 1853, Le Play began to work out his general ideas, and in 1864 wrote his "Réforme Sociale en France," of which account is given in M. Ribot's "Du Rôle Sociale des Idées Chrétiennes," Vol. 2. Another important work is "L'Organisation du Travail" (1870). [*See* the article *Le Play*, in M. Say's Dict. D'Economie Politique].

(4) "L'Organisation du Travail," chaps. 29 and 30. "Du Rôle Sociale des Idées Chrétiennes." P Ribot, Vol. II., pp. 286-295.

(5) What M. Baudrillart calls "calculs etroit de l'intérêt": Les Populations Agricoles, Vol. II., p. 253.

(6) "La Revue Socialiste." January 1892. Article by M. Amiel, p. 57.

(7) *See, e.g.*, an article by M. Le Fort, in the "Revue des Deux Mondes," 1867.
Cf., also article by M. Glasson, in "La Réforme Sociale," July 1st, 1893, p. 10.

(8) Les Populations Agricoles, Vol. II. (1888), p. 507.

(9) Les Populations Agricoles Vol. II., p. 389.

(10) *See* "Journal des Economistes," July 1893, pp. 119, cf. "Rapports du jury International, Group D'Economie Sociale. Deuxieme partie, Paris. 1892, p. 519.

(11) "La Population Française," Vol. II., chap. XIII., and Vol. III., chaps. III., V., and XIII., esp. pp. 192-5, 204, 226.

(12) "La Population Française," Vol. III., pp. 225-7, 432-4, and 491-5.

(13) "La Population Française," Vol. III., pp. 484, and ff. cf. also p. 183.

(14) "La Population Française," Vol. III., chaps. V. and XIII. especially, but also the whole volume.

(15) "La Population Française," Vol. III., pp. 109-10, 494-6.

(16) "La Population Française," Vol. III., pp. 211-227, and p. 316.

Table Ia.

Showing rise and fall in Population in the Departments from 1872 to 1886.

Departments.	1872-1886. Increase.	1872-1886. Decrease.	Density per sq. kilo 1886.
Ain	1,118	—	63
Aisne	3,486	—	76
Allier	33,770	—	58
Alpes (Basses)	—	9,838	19
„ (Hautes)	4,026	—	22
„ Maritimes	39,020	—	64
Ardèche	—	4,805	68
Ardennes	12,542	—	64
Ariège	—	8,679	49
Aube	1,087	—	43
Aude	46,153	—	53
Aveyron	13,352	—	48
Bouches-du-Rhône	49,946	—	118
Calvados	—	16,745	79
Cantal	9,875	—	42
Charente	—	1,112	62
Charente Inférieure	—	2,850	68
Cher	19,957	—	49
Corrèze	23,748	—	56
Corse	19,994	—	32
Côte-d'or	7,064	—	44
Côtes-du-Nord	5,961	—	91
Creuse	10,279	—	51
Dordogne	12,064	—	54
Doubs	19,712	—	59
Drôme	—	5,802	48
Eure	—	19,045	60
Eure-et-Loir	1,097	—	48
Finistère	64,857	—	105
Gard	—	3,032	71
Garonne (Haute)	1,807	—	76
Gers	—	10,326	44
Gironde	70,696	—	80
Hérault	9,166	—	71
Ille-et-Vilaine	31,852	—	92
Indre	18,454	—	44
Indre-et-Loire	23,894	—	56
Isère	5,896	—	70
Jura	—	6,342	56
Landes	1,738	—	32
Loir-et-Cher	10,413	—	44
Loire	52,773	—	127
Loire (Haute)	11,331	—	64
Loire-Inférieure	41,678	—	94
Loiret	21,854	—	55
Lot	—	9,890	52
Lot-et-Garonne	—	11,852	57
Lozère	6,074	—	27
Maine-et-Loire	9,209	—	74
Manche	—	23,911	88
Marne	43,337	—	52
Marne (Haute)	—	3,415	40
Mayenne	—	10,574	66
Meurthe-et-Moselle	66,556	—	83
Meuse	7,246	—	47
Morbihan	44,904	—	79
Nièvre	7,728	—	51
Nord	222,420	—	294
Oise	6,342	—	69
Orne	—	31,002	60
Pas-de-Calais	92,368	—	129
Puy-de-Dôme	4,501	—	72
Pyrénées (Basses)	6,299	—	57
„ (Hautes)	—	331	52
„ Orientales	19,331	—	51
Rhin (Haut)	22,977	—	131
Rhône	102,665	—	27
Saône (Haute)	—	12,134	54
Saône-et-Loire	27,541	—	73
Sarthe	—	10,492	70
Savoie	—	530	46
Savoie (Haute)	1,991	—	60
Seine	741,029	—	6,234
Seine-Inférieure	43,364	—	138
Seine-et-Marne	13,646	—	62
Seine-et-Oise	37,909	—	110
Sèvres (Deux)	22,523	—	59
Somme	—	8,033	89
Tarn	6,039	—	62
Tarn-et-Garonne	—	7,564	58
Var	—	10,068	47
Vaucluse	—	21,664	68
Vendée	33,362	—	65
Vienne	22,187	—	49
Vienne (Haute)	40,735	—	66
Vosges	20,719	—	71
Yonne	—	8,244	48
Total for France	2,115,982	—	72

Table Ib.

Showing Population by Departments for 1886 and 1891.

Departments.	Population by Thousands of Inhabitants. 1886.	1891.
1. Ain	364,4	356,9
2. Aisne	555,9	545,5
3. Allier	424,5	424,4
4. Alpes (Basses)	129,4	124,3
5. „ (Hautes)	122,9	115,5
6. „ Maritimes	238,0	258,6
7. Ardèche	375,4	371,3
8. Ardennes	332,7	324,9
9. Ariège	237,6	227,5
10. Aube	257,3	255,5
11. Aude	332,0	317,3
12. Aveyron	415,8	400,5
Belfort (Territory)	79,7	83,7
13. Bouches-du-Rhône	604,8	630,6
14. Calvados	437,2	428,9
15. Cantal	241,7	239,6
16. Charente	366,4	360,3

Departments.	Population by Thousands of Inhabitants.	
	1886.	1891.
17. Chareule-Inférieure	462,8	456,2
18. Cher	355,3	359,3
19. Corrèze	326,4	328,1
20. Corse	278,5	288,6
21. Côte-d'or	381,5	376,9
22. Côtes-du-Nord	628,2	618,6
23. Creuse	284,9	284,6
24. Dordogne	492,2	478,5
25. Doubs	310,9	303,1
26. Drôme	314,6	306,4
27. Eure	358,8	349,5
28. Eure-et-Loire	283,7	284,7
29. Finistère	707,8	727,0
30. Gard	417,0	419,4
31. Garonne (Haute)	481,1	472,4
32. Gers	274,3	261,1
33. Gironde	775,8	793,5
34. Hérault	439,0	461,6
35. Ille-et-Vilaine	621,3	626,9
36. Indre	296,1	292,9
37. Indre-et-Loire	340,9	337,3
38. Isère	581,6	572,1
39. Jura	281,2	273,0
40. Landes	302,2	297,8
41. Loir-et-Cher	279,2	283,3
42. Loire	603,3	616,2
43. Loire (Haute)	320,0	316,7
44. Loire-Inférieure	643,8	645,3
45. Loiret	374,8	377,7
46. Lot	271,5	253,9
47. Lot-et-Garonne	307,4	295,3
48. Lozère	141,2	135,5
49. Maine-et-Loire	527,6	518,6
50. Manche	520,8	513,8
51. Marne	429,4	434,7
52. Marne (Haute)	247,7	243,5
53. Mayenne	340,0	332,4
54. Meurthe-et-Moselle	431,6	444,1
55. Meuse	291,9	292,2
56. Morbihan	535,2	544,5
57. Nièvre	347,6	343,6
58. Nord	1,670,1	1,736,3
59. Oise	403,1	401,8
60. Orne	367,2	354,4
61. Pas-de-Calais	853,5	874,3
62. Puy-de-Dôme	570,9	564,2
63. Pyrénées (Basses)	432,9	425,0
64. „ (Hautes)	234,8	225,8
65. „ Orientales	211,1	210,1
66. Rhône	772,9	806,7
67. Saône	290,9	280,8
68. Saône-et-Loire	625,8	619,5
69. Sarthe	436,1	429,7
70. Savoie	267,4	263,3
71. „ (Haute)	275,0	268,3
72. Seine	2,961,0	3,141,6
73. Seine Inférieure	833,3	839,9
74. Seine-et-Marne	355,1	356,7
75. Seine-et-Oise	618,0	628,6
76. Sèvres (Deux)	353,7	354,3
77. Somme	548,9	546,5
78. Tarn	358,7	346,7
79. Tarn et Garonne	214,0	206,6
80. Var	283,6	288,3
81. Vaucluse	241,7	235,4
82. Vendée	434,8	442,3
83. Vienne	342,7	344,3
84. Vienne (Haute)	363,1	372,9
85. Vosges	413,7	410,2
86. Yonne	355,3	344,7
Total Population, France	38,218,9	38,446,3
Increase	—	2,274

Foreign immigration.

It is interesting in the same connection to note the figures given in M. Levasseur's "Population Française,"(1) as to numbers of foreigners in France. In 1851 there were 380.831 or 1·06 per 100. In 1886 there were 1,126,531 or 2·97 per 100, which shows a threefold increase in less than 50 years. These figures do not include naturalised foreigners, who numbered 103,886 in 1886. The Belgian, Italian, German, Spanish, and Swiss nationalities are, respectively, 43, 24, 9, 7, and 7 per cent. of the total number of foreigners. In 1886 foreigners were in the Alpes Maritimes 19·1 per cent. of the total, in the Nord, 18·3, in the Bouches-du-Rhône, 12·8, in the Ardennes, 11·3, in Belfort, 10·5, in Var, 8·7, in Meurthe-et-Moselle, 7·6, and in the Seine department, 7·2.

The "Standard" of May 24th, 1893, reported the following figures as to foreigners employed in trades or otherwise in France(2):—

Chemical works	6,000
Building trades	92,000
Ironworks	30,000
Textiles	59,000
Clothing	63,000
Professions	38,000
Farmers	110,000
Landowners	99,000
Tradesmen	57,000

The following figures(3) show the numbers of foreigners in certain trades in Paris in 1886 and 1891.

Table Ic.

Trades.	1886.		1891.	
	French-men.	For-eigners.	French-men.	For-eigners.
Merchants and clerks	203,078	22,783	66,334	6,604
Cabinet makers	25,812	6,731	30,797	5,474
Shoemakers	35,139	4,745	35,463	4,398
Painters, plasterers, &c.	23,161	3,989	20,792	3,816
Hatmakers	9,923	2,216	11,033	2,634
Tanners, &c.	16,133	1,827	12,378	1,310

In this connection the importance of the law of August 8th, 1893, regulating the employment of foreigners is manifest.(4) The serious labour riots arising between French and Italian workmen at Aigues Mortes on August 17th, and the proclamation of the Mayor of the Commune are significant comments upon the law.(5)

(1) "La Population Française," Vol. III., pp. 211-227, and p. 316.

(2) The statistics promised by the *Office du Travail* at the date above mentioned have been received since this section was written (August 1893). They show ("Dénombrement des Étrangers en France." Paris Imprimerie Nationale, 1893), that at the time of the census of 1891 there were 1,130,211 foreigners, or 30 in a thousand of the total population in France, of whom 598,694 were of the masculine sex, 531,518 feminine. Thirty-two per cent. of these foreigners were engaged in agriculture, 48 per cent. in manufacturing industries, and 16 per cent. in commerce; 131,447 were employers, 39,379 salaried assistants (employés), 339,283 wage-paid workers of all classes, and 51,786 domestic servants; of these last 38,414 were women. The following figures show the nationalities of the foreigners:

English (British)	39,637
Americans (North)	7,024
South Americans	4,828
Germans	83,330
Austrians	9,648
Hungarians	2,261
Belgians	465,860
Italians	285,837
Dutch	9,078
Luxembourgers	31,248
Spaniards	77,736
Portuguese	1,331
Swiss	83,117
Russians	14,357
Scandinavians	2,811

Interesting maps in the book from which these figures are taken show that the Belgians, Italians, Germans, and Spaniards tend to appear in those parts of France which are more nearly contiguous to their own countries. The Swiss are more scattered from the extreme North to the South, and appear to form the most pushing, though not the largest, inward stream. Swiss immigrants in France number 3 per cent. of their own total population. In 40 years Belgian and Italian immigration has quadrupled, in the same period Spanish immigration has nearly tripled itself; this last people has pressed in on the south-west precisely where the French population has most decreased through the combined effects of excess of deaths over births and emigration. The annexed map, gives a general view of the numbers of foreigners in France.—G.D.

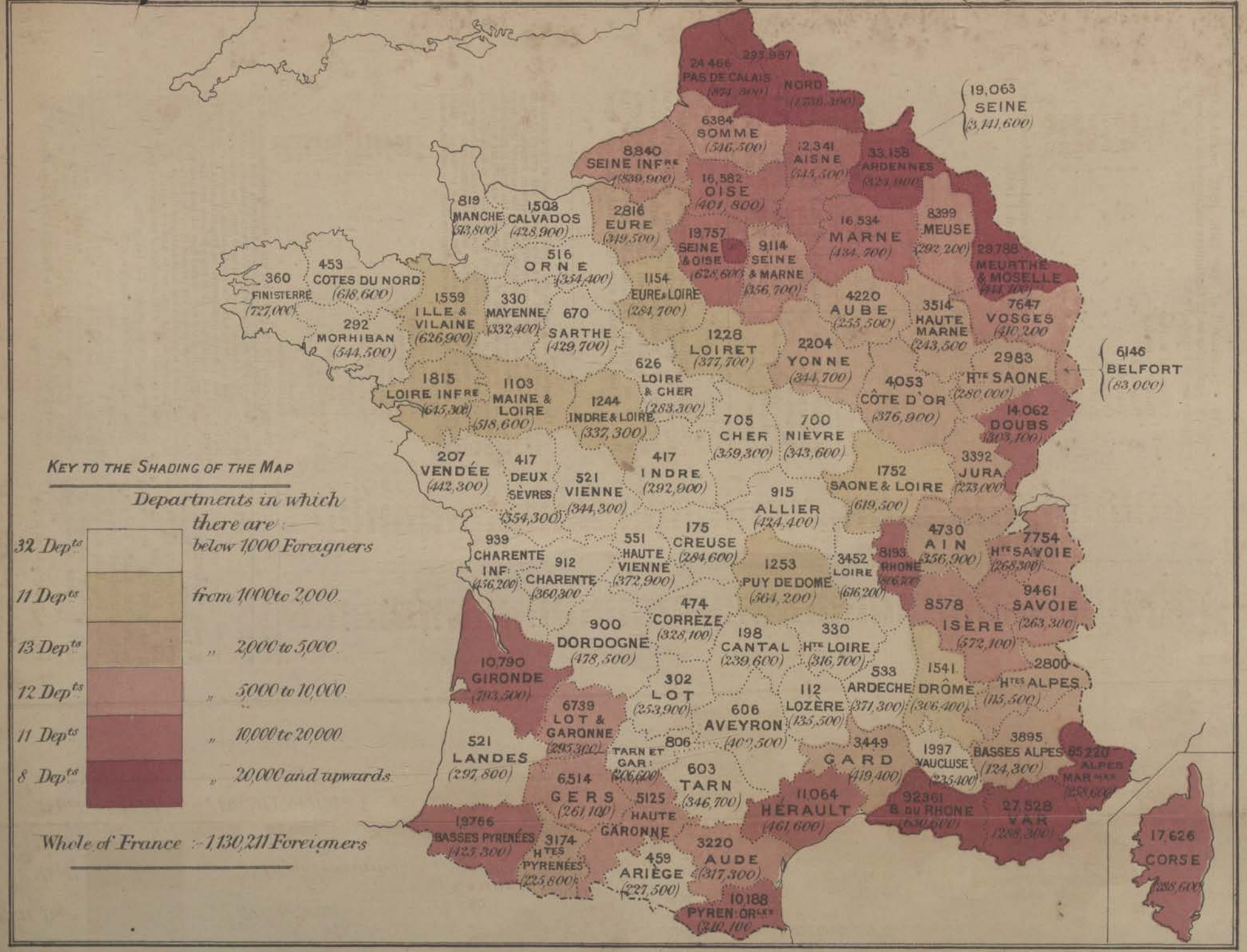
(3) "La Population Française" Vol. III., p. 322.

(4) *See* Appendix for text of this law, p. 98.

(5) This proclamation ran as follows: "Let us cease from all demonstrations in the streets to show ourselves worthy of our fatherland. It is by our calm attitude that we shall allow it to be seen how much we regret the deplorable accidents which have occurred. Let us collect our senses in order to care for our wounds, and in going peaceably to work prove how well we have succeeded, and how completely our demands are satisfied. Vive la France! Vive Aigues-Mortes!" *See* "Times," August 19th, 1893.

MAP OF FRANCE.

Shewing Foreigners of every Nationality numbered in the Departments in 1891. The bracketed figures give the population in the same year.



KEY TO THE SHADING OF THE MAP

Departments in which there are :—

32 Depts	below 1,000 Foreigners
11 Depts	from 1,000 to 2,000
13 Depts	„ 2,000 to 5,000
12 Depts	„ 5,000 to 10,000
11 Depts	„ 10,000 to 20,000
8 Depts	„ 20,000 and upwards

Whole of France :- 1,130,211 Foreigners

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French emigration abroad is comparatively of small proportion. The following figures are the latest authoritatively published.(1)

TABLE Id.

NUMBER of FRENCH EMIGRANTS according to DEPARTMENTS in 1888.

Departments.	Number of Emigrants.	Departments.	Number of Emigrants.	Departments.	Number of Emigrants.
Ain	130	Gers	456	Pyrénées (Basses)	3,076
Aisne	174	Gironde	466	Pyrénées (Hautes)	893
Allier	199	Hérault	146	Pyrénées (Orientales)	810
Alpes (Basses)	142	Ille-et-Vilaine	197	Rhin (Haut)	288
Alpes (Hautes)	346	Indre	106	Rhône	223
Alpes (Maritimes)	60	Indre-et-Loire	102	Saône (Haute)	439
Ardèche	165	Isère	135	Saône-et-Loir	81
Ardennes	173	Jura	118	Sarthe	48
Ariège	514	Landes	190	Savoie	335
Aube	91	Loir-et-Cher	111	Savoie (Haute)	168
Aude	407	Loire	167	Seine	1,012
Aveyron	647	Loire (Haute)	123	Seine-Inférieure	199
Bouches-du-Rhône	193	Loire-Inférieure	262	Seine-et-Marne	50
Calvados	101	Loiret	79	Seine-et-Oise	98
Cantal	111	Lot	607	Sèvres (Deux)	158
Charente	326	Lot-et-Garonne	262	Somme	155
Charente-Inférieure	391	Lozère	107	Tarn	184
Cher	385	Maine-et-Loire	132	Tarn-et-Garonne	130
Corrèze	207	Manche	89	Var	87
Corse	174	Marne	170	Vaucluse	59
Côte-d'Or	101	Marne (Haute)	181	Vendée	80
Côtes-du-Nord	310	Mayenne	80	Vienne	207
Creuse	81	Meurthe-et-Moselle	270	Vienne (Haute)	50
Dordogne	649	Meuse	104	Vosges	114
Doubs	432	Morbihan	120	Yonne	65
Drôme	129	Nièvre	96	Frenchmen settled abroad	84
Eure	70	Nord	570		
Eure-et-Loir	95	Oise	125	Total number of emigrants (1888).	23,339
Finistere	263	Orne	67		
Gard	165	Pas-de-Calais	397		
Garonne (Haute)	872	Puy-de-Dôme	108		

(1) Annuaire Statistique. 1891. p. 32.

TABLE Ie.

STATISTICS of FRENCH EMIGRANTS by PORT of EMBARKATIONS and DESTINATIONS in 1888.

Ports of Embarkation.		Description of Emigrants.		Destination.	
Saint Nazaire	210	Sex:		United States and Canada	4,142
Bordeaux	10,940	Masculine	12,091	Mexico and Central America	128
Le Havre	10,628	Feminine	6,328	Antilles	69
Marseille	1,561	Children	4,920	Colombia, Venezuela, Equateur	148
	23,339	Age:		Chili and Peru	716
		Under 1 year	1,150	Brazil	1,396
		From 1 to 10 years	2,751	Montevideo and Buenos Ayres	16,716
		From 10 to 20 years	3,516	Africa (Reunion, Senegal, Port Natal).	22
		From 20 to 50 years	5,326		
		Over 50 years	596	Other countries	2
		Professions:			23,339
		Industrial workers	12,112		
		Agricultural workers	4,970		
		Others	6,257		
			23,339		

TABLE If.

SHOWING EMIGRATION from 1875 to 1890. [From the "STATISTICAL ABSTRACT," 1893.]

FRANCE.

Nationality.	1875.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
French	4,400	4,612	4,456	4,858	4,011	6,100	6,063	7,314	11,170	23,339	31,354	20,560
Other	22,493	41,431	49,384	54,867	53,148	31,349	30,424	35,618	60,949	71,336	57,801	51,952
Total Emigration at French Ports.	26,893	46,043	53,840	59,725	57,159	37,449	36,487	42,932	72,119	94,675	89,155	72,512

From the industrial point of view the relative numbers of the sexes are important. The census of 1886 showed that whereas for the whole of Europe the number of women for 1,000 men was 1,025, for France the numbers were 1,008. At each census in France women have been superior in number, although less so than in other European countries, "no doubt on account of (predominance of men in) foreign immigration."(1) They attained the highest points in 1821 (51·43 per cent.) and 1870 (50·21 per cent). In 1881 for 100 men there were 100·49 women. In 1886 for 100 men there were 100·69 women.

Locally, the predominance of one sex over the other is not uniform. In 1886 in the east and south-east of France there were 54 to 51·2 men in one hundred inhabitants, while in the west and north-west there were 54 to 51·2 women in 100 inhabitants.

Of married women in France the proportion is higher than in other countries of Europe, being 595 out of 1,000 (between 15 and 50 years), while for England it is 518, for Belgium 425, for Italy 540, and Prussia, 506.(2)

The following table gives a convenient summary of numbers engaged in industrial or agricultural life in France:—

TABLE II.

SHOWING EMPLOYMENTS of TOTAL POPULATION in 1886.*

——	Employers.	Foremen and Clerks.	Workmen.	Family.	Domestics.	Total.
Agriculture	4,046,164	97,835	2,771,966	9,911,190	871,247	17,698,402
Industry	1,004,939	236,522	3,056,161	4,780,761	210,823	9,289,206
Transport	53,898	119,530	225,003	597,775	24,515	1,020,721
Commerce	951,077	398,044	553,416	2,058,398	286,829	4,247,764
Public Forces	484,898	749	2,086	116,976	9,653	613,362
Public Administration	189,187	31,249	34,611	411,574	44,406	711,027
Liberal Professions	400,196	70,961	32,064	444,459	146,553	1,094.233
Fund holders or holders of Property	978,744	9,142	100,283	851,615	356,182	2,295,966
Total	8,109,103	964,032	6,774,590	19,172,748	1,950,208	36,970,681
Not classed	—	—	—	—	—	860,078
General Total	—	—	—	—	—	37,930,759

GROUP OF 100,000 INDIVIDUALS.

Agriculture	10,930	270	7,480	26,780	2,360	47,820
Industry	2,740	640	8,250	12,970	570	25,170
Transports	140	320	610	1,630	60	2,760
Commerce	2,580	1,080	1,490	5,580	770	11,500
Public Forces	1,290	10	30	300	30	1,660
Public Administration	510	80	100	1,110	120	1,920
Liberal Professions	1,090	190	90	1,190	400	2,960
Propertied Classes	2,650	20	280	2,300	960	6.210
	21,930	2,610	18,330	51,860	5,270	100,000

(*) Chambre des Deputés, No. 2,576. Motteroz, 1893, p. 256.

(viii.) Agricultural labour and the industrial problem.

In a country in which more than half of the classified population is employed in agriculture it would be remarkable if the question of agricultural life and labour had not an important bearing on the industrial situation. But it is not a question of mere numerical proportion. It has been too often remarked to require special emphasis now, that it is the character of the rural peasantry which has such special significance for France. The spirit of association and combination which appeared within the industrial armies of the country after the Revolution, was unthought of until a much later date in rural life, and the attempts at organisation when they arose assumed so distinct a character that the agricultural associations require a separate treatment in the section on Trade Association.(3) It is necessary to indicate at this point that, as yet, the agricultural life of France is only linked with the socialist and labour movement through the comparatively small class of hired labour.(4) Land being divided amongst a great number of families, the working proprietors form the most important section, and except in the districts of "grande culture" the wage paid labourers are comparatively few. The struggle for life with this class is shown by M. Baudrillart to be incomparably less severe than it was 20 years ago in a great many departments, but it is still in many, as with the agricultural labourer in England, a harassing one. "And while they suffer less (than industrial workers) "from the cruel anxieties of uncertainty of employ- "ment they suffer more from the certainty of a low "wage and the almost total absence of any hope of "improving their condition.(5) . . . . The peasant "proprietors who may be considered the true back- "bone of France, furnish of course, but a poor re- "cruiting ground for agitators, but with the hired "labourer it is otherwise."(6) The socialists themselves fully recognise this fact and are concerting measures to meet it. "The industrial proletariate, "having at the same time the capitalist bourgeoisie "and the peasantry as antagonists, may see their "emancipation permanently arrested by the governing "class backed by the rural masses."(7) In some districts considerable opposition has been shown by the peasant proprietor to association amongst the hired labourers.(8) Efforts of the Catholic socialists are being directed towards promotion of harmony between this newer kind of association and those of the proprietors.

(ix.) Attitude of women to labour questions.

It is important to observe the attitude taken by French women to the labour and socialist movement. Mr. Stephen speaks highly of the "remarkable common sense" of the women of the working classes. "That "their influence, as a rule, is used towards deterring "workmen from joining syndicates is probable, and it "is interesting to observe in talking with them how "shrewdly they seem to have grasped the situation,

(1) "La Population Française," Levasseur. Vol. I., p. 333.
(2) *Ib.* Vol. III., p. 186.
(3) Cf. infra, p. 26.
(4) Agricultural life is divided into the following classes: Large proprietors, small proprietors, farmers, metayers, hired labourers. Of all these classes, there are 17,698,402 souls of the last 2,772,000. Cf. Almanach de la Democracie Rural, 1893.
(5) Cf. infra, Division II., pp. 61-68.
(6) F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series. No. 258, p. v.
(7) "La Revue Socialiste." September 1892. Article by H. Amiel, p. 280. *See* also in the number for June 1893, an Article: "Le Proletariat Agricole."
(8) L'Association Catholique. January 1893. p. 17-19.

" and how needless they consider it to make personal " sacrifices or run unnecessary financial risk when the " tide of itself is running so high in their favour."(1) Unfortunately this shrewdness is not universal or it does not always stand the test of times of high excitement and conflict. Least of all does the above encomium apparently apply to the women engaged in the socialist movement if it is fair to judge from the account published in the *Revue Socialiste* of a Women's Congress held at Paris in May 1892. It is perhaps worthy of remark that the first word of socialism apparently ever uttered amongst the once peaceful miners of Carmaux came through the *Citoyenne* Paule Minck.(2) She doubtless, was a foreigner by birth, but in the disturbances that afterwards followed, a very active part was taken by the miners' wives, and subsequent acts of violence were not wanting amongst them.(3) Such instances, however, are comparatively rare.(4) " There " is, perhaps, no other nation where the women take so " intelligent and active a part in business affairs as " they do in France. In the small shopkeeping class " the women as a rule have much better judgment than " their husbands, and are the real brains and life of " the trade. The wife of a French tradesman, artisan, " or farmer is generally his cashier and accountant. " She takes care of the savings and invests them; she " is much brighter than her husband, and a good deal " more industrious in a very large number of instances. " and does not hesitate to assert herself, particularly if " she was the possessor of a *dot* when she was married.(5)

Part taken by women in business affairs.

Working women and the civil code.

According to an eminent lawyer, reform in the matter of protection for the wife of the working man is urgently required. In such abuses as exist a basis is to be found for the contention of the socialists that women in France have legitimate claims which are unsatisfied.(6) In the opinion of jurists, however, the civil code very fairly protects a woman of property against extravagance of her husband, though there is practically no remedy for the wife of a working man who misappropriates her earnings. A man owes his wife normally no account of the use he may make of her earnings and her only refuge against extravagance on his part is an appeal for separation of property (*séparation de biens*), a costly procedure.(7) The reports of the *bureaux de bienfaisance* show only too clearly that the thrifty working woman with children is often robbed, deserted, and left to public charity. " Would " it not be well to establish for these unfortunate " women a simple method or procedure by which they " might claim through the husband's employer a " certain portion of their husband's earnings or at " least retain intact for themselves under certain " circumstances the proceeds of their own labour. " Too much is said to the working man of his rights " andnot enough is said to him of his duties."(8) The only facility given to the French working man's wife to effect separate savings is under the law of April 9th, 1881, which regulates savings banks. This allows her to make deposits without express authorisation of her husband, although he is still allowed a veto and is given power to withdraw her deposits without her consent. M. Glasson asks that the law should go further and take from the husband the right to withdraw his wife's savings if she refuses her consent.(9) The chief practical objection urged as against such reforms is that if the rights of the working man over his wife were touched he would no longer marry.(10)(11)

B.—General Relations between Employers and Employed.

1. *Right of Industrial Association and Rise of the Trade Syndicates* (" *Syndicats Professionels*," " *Chambres Syndicales*.")

(i.) Denotation of the term syndicate.

Industrial organisation of all kinds among employers and employed in France, including commercial and agricultural associations, as constituted under the law of March 21st, 1884, are alike designated generally by a single term, namely, trade or professional syndicate, and not as in England by a variety of terms intended to express more or less the purposes for which the association was formed. It is necessary to bear this in mind in tracing the origin and growth of modern industrial association in France and to recognise that, while the associations of employed correspond in a very large number of instances to the Trades Unions of England, they do not always so correspond, and that comparatively few of the employers' syndicates correspond in any degree to the offensive and defensive alliances which recently have arisen and increased in number and extent in England.

(ii.) Overthrow of the Guild system.

Hardly had the overthrow of the old guild or corporation system been accomplished (12) by the law of June 14th and 17th, 1791, than protests began to be heard, not only on the part of employers but also on the part of the workmen in favour of the institutions thus abolished. The terms of some of the articles of the law are bound to raise a certain degree of astonishment to-day in the mind of anyone reading them without knowledge of the conditions which led to them. " Citizens of the same state or profession, " employers (*entrepreneurs*) . . . workmen and " journeymen (*compagnons*) of whatsoever kind may " not, when assembled together, appoint presidents or " secretaries or syndics, nor may they keep records, " form resolutions or decisions, nor make regulations " as to their alleged common interests " (Article 3).(13) The denial of common industrial interests, and the consequent isolation of workmen and employers, could hardly have been more complete.(14) Even Marat in the early times of the Terror became the defender of the old associations against a liberty " which could not but do harm and injure the consumer " in whose interests the abolition was mainly brought to pass.(15) From the time that order was re-established, through all the changes down to 1867, the claims of the industrial world with regard to the right of combination and association did not cease to make themselves heard as against what M. Floquet has called *la loi martiale de l'industrie*.(16)

Irregular growth of associations.

In spite of the prohibitions, further supported by the clauses 291–4 of the Penal Code which declare that no association of more than 20 persons can exist without permission from the authorities, numerous associations of employers or employed were being formed all this time both in Paris and in the departments.(17) Under Napoleon I., compulsory or regulated corporations of employers were encouraged for political reasons among butchers, bakers, printers, and other trades; these were echoes of the ancient guilds. Later came the isolated associations which were in time organised by the National Union and the central committee. At the same time that Napoleon encouraged the regulated corporations, associations of journeymen were more or less tolerated by the authorities in the form of benefit societies; but in 1832, when employers' syndicates began to discuss the wages question, the journeymen carpenters went out on strike for a ten hours' day. Great activity in forming societies of resistance was shown amongst Lyons workmen during the same decade. The International was formally instituted in the country, when the law of May 25, 1864, had at length recognised freedom to form certain coalitions, though it never took deep root, and was practically at an end when measures were taken against it in 1872. The alteration in the law, introduced in 1864, was effected by modification of the clauses 414–6 of the Penal Code which had forbidden employed or employers to combine " for the purpose of stopping " or preventing work in any atelier, of hindering men " from entering the shops before or after certain hours, " and in general, of suspending, stopping or levying " fines or establishing prohibitions, interdictions, or " prescriptions of any kind."(19) An impulse was given to the movement towards association, and by the time the law of 1884 was promulgated, the reports of the prefecture of police showed that in Paris alone there were 237 workmen's syndicates, in which 50,000 members in all were enrolled, while in the departments there were 350 workmen's syndicates. Both workmen's and employers' syndicates were " constituted under

(iii.) The law of May 25th, 1864.

(1) F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. vii.
(2) " Le Temps," October 18th, 1892.
(3) " La Réforme Sociale." January 1892. Article by M. Gibon, p. 528.
(4) The " Times " of September 23rd reports that in the mining strike at Graissessac, in Herault, women have taken a specially prominent part in interference with freedom of labour.—G.D.
(5) U. S. Report by Consul Loomis. No. 148.
(6) *See* " Le Socialisme Intégral." B. Malon, 1890. Chap. vii., section v.
(7) Le Code Civil et la Question Ouvriere, pp. 59 and ff.
(8) *Ib.*, p. 60.
(9) *Ib.*, p. 65.
(10) *Ib.*, pp. 91, 103, 111.
(11) The Draft Bill on a National Provident Fund (*cf. infra* Appendix, p. 123) specially provides for independent investment on the part of the working married woman.

(12) Discours Politiques, Comte A. de Mun. Tome II., p. 43.
(13) Le Code Civil et la Question Ouvrière. M. Glasson. Academie des Sciences Morales et Politiques. Firmin, Didot et Cie. Paris. 1891, p. 7.
(14) *Ib.*, p. 8. F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 213. 1891.
(15) (1.) Étude historique, &c. Sur les Syndicats Professionels. Hyacinthe Glotin, Larose et Forcel. 1892.
(2.) Dictionnaire de l'administration Française. M. Block. 3me. Edition, 1892. Berger Levrault et Cie.
(16) Discours du Comte de Mun loc cit. p. 41. Lexis Gewerk-Vereine und Unternehmer Verbände in Frankreich.
(17) F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 213, pp. 8–9.
(18) (1.) Le Code Civil et la Question Ouvriere, p. 7. (2.) Etude Historique, &c., sur les Synd. Prof. pp. 108–9.
(19) F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 213.

"forms having a certain appearance of legality." Employers' syndicates affected generally the form of a civil society, constituted for a fixed period between manufacturers of the same speciality, while workmen's syndicates frequently took the form of a society with variable capital (*à capital variable*) under the Joint Stock Companies Act of July 24, 1867, or sometimes made use of the law relating to mutual aid societies (*les sociétés de secours mutuels.*)(1) But in spite of all devices the fact remained that from the civil point of view such societies, having an illicit object, had no legal status and their acts were in consequence liable to be declared void. While the Government favoured the existence of these institutions, yet, if litigation arose, decisions of legal tribunals were apt to go in favour of persons infringing the rules of the societies.(2) "At last on "the 22nd November 1880, a Bill (*projet de loi*) was "laid before the Chamber in the name of the President "of the Republic, by M. Jules Cazot, Minister of "Justice, and M. Tirard, Minister of Agriculture and "Commerce. The Government intended to give a "legal existence to those associations which it had so "long permitted to exist illicitly."(3) But the Bill did not become law until after many debates in the Chamber and the Senate.(4) On March the 21st, 1884, the law recognising trade association came into force and gave equal rights to employers and employed. "It was not "a return," says M. Glotin, "to the ancient corporations, but simply a consecration and recognition of "that which already in fact existed. Custom became "law, if one may say so."(5) The first and second section of this law(6) repealed the law of June 17th, 1791, and Article 416 of the Penal Code (which punished combination with fine and imprisonment) and further declared certain other Articles 291–4 which controlled associations of more than 20 persons to be no longer applicable to professional syndicates. The second declared the freedom of industrial association to exist without special authorisation of Government.(7) In the words of the Ministerial circular addressed to the prefects "the law dispensed with all preliminary "authorisation . . ., all useless formalities and "demanded only one condition for the regular establishment of such associations, namely, publicity." The law also declared that fines and prohibitions inflicted or pronounced by syndicates in connexion with strikes were "no longer to be considered as an attempt "to prevent the free exercise of industry and labour." The law also provided that the syndicates might establish "benefit funds and undertake the duties of registry offices for the supply of labour."(8)

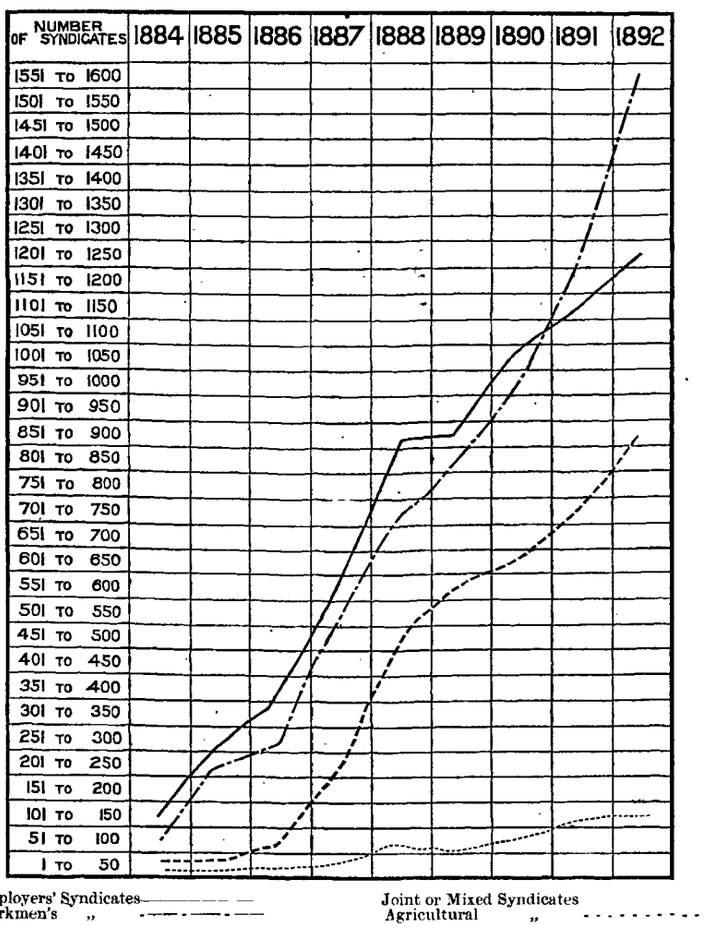
(iv.) The law of March 21st, 1884.

The effect of this law upon the movement towards industrial association may be most forcibly gauged by the following graphic table taken from the *Annuaire des Syndicats Professionels* of 1892:—

Immediate effect of the law.

TABLE III.

SHOWING THE MOVEMENT OF TRADE SYNDICATES (OF EMPLOYERS, EMPLOYED, JOINT, & AGRICULTURAL), IN FRANCE AND ALGERIA, UNDER THE LAW OF MARCH 21, 1884 (ON JULY 1ST OF EACH YEAR).



This work (9) shows that syndicates are registered under a special bureau by the prefect in each district according to the date of foundation. The register contains the exact title, the date of formation, number of members, place of meeting, of such associations and the various institutions formed by it if there are any. The committees of administration seem to be bodies varying too much to be included in the register. A certain number of irregular syndicates, *i.e.*, such as have not complied with the formalities prescribed by the law, were still in existence on July 1892. Out of a total of 3,988 syndicates 177 were irregular at this date, as against 480 irregular syndicates in July 1884. It is only within the last four years that the decrease in such syndicates became rapid, either through dissolution or, more often, through reorganisation. Of syndicates formed since 1887 very few have failed to comply with the formalities of the law. Only 1 per cent. of employers' syndicates and only 9 per cent. of workmen's syndicates are irregular.

Irregular syndicates.

The distribution by departments of the syndicates is very unequal, certain departments, *e.g.*, Seine (575

(v.) Distribution of the syndicates.

(1) Étude Historique, &c., pp. 113–4. (Quoting Dalloz, Jurisp Gón., Ouvriers, No. 167. For a review of the state of the mutual-aid societies and legislation regulating them, cf. infra, p. 81.
(2) Étude Historique, &c. Sur les Synd. Prof., pp. 114–5.
(3) *Ib.*, p. 122.
(4) Discours Politiques du Comte de Mun. Vol. II., pp. 38–98.
(5) Étude Historique, &c. H. Glotin, p. 123.
(6) For text of this law *see* Appendix III. p. 99.
(7) For commentary on the law—Cf. the works of M. Gudin de Pavillon, and of M. H. Glotin above quoted.
(8) F. O. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. iv.–v.
(9) Annuaire des Syndicats Professionels. Issued under the "Direction de l'Enseignement industriel et Commercial." Berger Levrault. Paris, 1892.

syndicates), Rhône, Bouches-du-Rhône, Nord, Gironde, Loire, Ardennes and others rise considerably above the average in their total number of syndicates, while others, *e.g.*, Ariège (two syndicates), Lozère, Haute Savoie, fall considerably below it. There is no department at the present date to which the system of trade association has not penetrated. The distribution by towns is also unequal, Paris, Lyon, Marseille, and Bordeaux head the list with 566, 188, 143, and 109 syndicates respectively.

Numbers of members of syndicates.

It would be misleading to gauge the syndical movement solely by the number of separate associations. Examination of the *Annuaire* shows that increase of associated industrial units does not always coincide with increase in number of associations. We may note, however, that the department Seine heads the list in both respects, and had a total of 32,964 associated industrial units in 1892. The department Nord follows with 11,781 associated units. The tables of the *Annuaire* show also that while the numbers of members of syndicates have increased in 34 departments, they have remained stationary in 42, and have decreased in 14, within the last two years.

Association by trades.

A very useful alphabetical table at the end of the *Annuaire* deals with trades from the point of view of association by means of references to the body of the work. The following table summarises the results, giving the trades, exclusive of agriculture, in the order of numbers of organisations.(1)

TABLE IIIA.

ORGANISED TRADES.

Trades.	Syndicates.			
	Employers.	Workmen.	Joint or Mixed.	Total.
Provision dealing trades (bakers, butchers, grocers, &c.)	359	83	11	453
Building trades (masons, carpenters, painters, plasterers, &c.)	115	267	30	412
Clothing trades (hat-making, tailoring, boot and shoe, &c.)	71	185	17	273
Textile trades, spinning and weaving	39	160	11	210
Iron, steel and hardware trades	45	155	9	209
Book-making and printing trades	45	151	9	205
Leather trades	28	57	1	86
Inn, coffee and lodging house keepers and waiters	46	29	7	82
Transport (railways, shipping, carting, &c.)	31	33	16	80
Coach building and allied trades (wheelwrights, coopers, shipwrights)	30	49	—	79
Chemists and druggists	79	—	—	79
Watchmakers and jewellers	37	33	4	74
Ceramic trades (porcelain, pottery, glass, tiles, &c.)	16	54	1	71
Furnishing trades	29	31	3	63
Mining and quarrying trades	4	52	—	56
Lighting and heating	32	19	—	51
Horticulturists and florists	25	5	10	40
Brokers, commercial travellers, commission agents	14	13	2	29
Clerks and shop assistants	—	24	—	24
Tobacco trade	—	19	—	19
Bankers and agents d'affaires	15	—	—	—
Chemical trades	10	2	1	13

It will be observed on comparison of the above table with the section to follow later, on distribution of strikes, that it is difficult to draw any general conclusions as to relations between number of disputes and degree of organisation. The most highly organised trades are in some cases singularly free from trade disputes, in others, and especially one group, the textiles, remarkably subject to them. It is perhaps worthy of special remark that the mining and quarrying industries which follow closely upon the textile trades in respect of number and importance of trade disputes, while falling rather low in the above table of number of organisations are destitute of any joint organisation of employed and employers.

(2.) *Employers' Syndicates.*

(i.) Services rendered by employers' syndicates.

Mr. Condie Stephen remarks that while the "workmen's syndicates direct all their efforts towards unity "in the hope of securing more favourable conditions "of labour, the associations organised by employers "possess no such harmony of aim, their object being "the furtherance of the interest of special branches of "industry rather than the defence of capital against "labour. . . . In a word, community of interest is confined to the trades themselves . . . they are still far "more occupied in directing an attack upon the consumer than in establishing a defence against the "ever-spreading attack upon themselves."(2) From one point of view this is a true description, but must not be accepted without at the same time taking note of the valuable institutions for the special benefit of workmen known as "oeuvres," or "institutions patronales," which are spreading amongst associated as well as unassociated employers in France, and which, in the opinion of the followers of Le Play, point to the solution of the industrial problem.(3) It is true that the employers' syndicates have in fact so far developed on very much the same lines as those which they proposed to themselves before the law of 1884, and the increase in their number seems rather due to the facility of formation combined with the necessity for pursuit of special trade interests than to the other causes operating in the case of workmens' syndicates. M. Glotin enumerates some of the advantages secured to the employers by organisation; they are chiefly summed up in the one idea of strength to compete, whether with foreign markets, or with powerful or unscrupulous adversaries in their own country. He quotes from a speech in the Chamber by M. Aynard, the results obtained in the toy-making industry, an industry which was almost undermined by German competition. By the power of its syndical chamber this specially Parisian industry has been restored to its former prosperity. M. Glotin also draws attention to the increased number of convictions for illegal exercise of the trade of druggist, and declares that there is no doubt that this is due to activity in prosecution by the syndicated members of the trade. Defence of trade interests against undue exercise of local administrative authorities is by no means uncommon. "Thus syndicates of butchers have contested "certain municipal decisions regulating the conduct of "their establishments and establishing certain taxes, "and they have often gained their cause."(4) Great facilities for petitioning Parliament directly have certainly been gained by organisation.

Subsidiary institutions of the syndicates.

The subsidiary institutions (funds, libraries, schools, technical instruction) stimulated by the syndical movement are a remarkable feature of trade organisation in France, and in none of the four groups of syndicates are they more prominent than in that of employers. The subjoined table from the *Annuaire des Syndicats Professionels* gives a useful survey of such institutions.

(1) Annuaire des Syndicats Professionels, p. xxviii.-xxix.
(2) F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. v.-vi.
(3) Report of the 15th Section of the 1889 Exhibition. Paris. Imprimerie Nationale, 1892.
"La Réforme Sociale," Vol. xxiii., pp 218-33.
(4) Etude Historique, &c., des Synd. Prof., pp. 398-420.

TABLE IV.

INSTITUTIONS and ESTABLISHMENTS founded by TRADE SYNDICATES.

(Drawn up on July 1, 1892.)

Nature of the Institutions.	Syndicates.				Total.
	Industrial or Commercial.			Agricultural.	
	Employers'.	Workmen's.	Joint or Mixed.		
Friendly Societies or funds for mutual aid.	36	243	28	13	320
Provident funds or savings banks	4	30	2	—	36
Out of work funds	—	70	1	—	71
Mutual credit funds	2	2	—	3	7
Pension funds	6	31	6	—	43
Benevolent funds	2	—	—	—	2
Accident funds or societies	13	3	—	1	17
Societies or funds for insurance against mortality of animals.	2	—	—	16	18
Societies or funds for fire insurance	2	—	—	1	3
Societies or funds for hail insurance	—	—	—	3	3
Co-operative societies, distributive	2	26	1	9	38
„ „ productive	—	10	—	2	12
Technical schools	12	4	1	1	18
Technical classes and conferences	38	58	5	33	134
Professional or technical competitions	2	1	1	—	4
Schools for apprentices	2	—	—	—	2
Orphanages	1	—	—	1	2
Industrial or commercial museums and collections of samples.	5	—	2	—	7
Syndical exhibitions	—	—	—	1	1
„ workshops	1	1	—	—	2
Libraries	62	300	10	24	396
Registry offices or labour agencies (1)	71	176	16	8	271
Offices for commercial intelligence	1	—	—	3	4
Analytical laboratories	13	—	—	7	20
Legal aid	19	2	1	2	24
Boards of arbitration	4	2	1	—	7
Medical aid	3	2	—	1	6
Field for experiments	1	—	1	37	39
Nurseries (agricultural)	—	—	—	15	15
Journals and other publications	89	21	3	74	187
Wine markets	—	—	1	3	4
Societies for manual aid	—	—	—	2	2

Some of these heads, especially the various funds and the supply of experts and arbitrators, are fully and more conveniently treated under other sections of the Report. As for the educational services rendered by means of classes, laboratories, museums, &c., and the general intelligence and journalistic departments of these syndicates, it seems sufficient to draw attention to them. M. Glotin points out that further development of the already existing subordinate institutions of mutual credit might serve in France to fill the place of the popular banks and public institutions of credit established in Germany and Italy.

(ii.) Distribution of the syndicates by departments and towns.

The departments containing the greatest number of employers' syndicates, were on July 1, 1892, as shown in the following tables:—

TABLE V.

Department.	Syndicates.	Members.	Department.	Syndicates.	Members.
Seine	325	54,174	Nord	49	2,693
Bouches du-Rhône.	68	4,991	Gironde	48	4,103
Rhône	62	5,020	Seine - Inférieure.	43	2,181

(1) The numbers given by this official register should be compared with those furnished by another department in the Ministry of Commerce and Industry for the same year. *See* p. 91 *infra*.

Paris, Marseilles, Lyons, Bordeaux are, as might be expected, the towns which head the list in regard to number of syndicates.

(1.) Paris.

Paris has 323 employers' syndicates. Of these 185 have been formed since 1884, the increase in number being most rapid in the years 1889 and 1890. The largest of all these associations is the *Chambre syndicale des Débitants de Vins du département de la Seine*, including 7,467 members. It was founded in 1877 and has a number of subsidiary institutions, *e.g.*, an analytical laboratory, medical and legal officers (*service medical, service de contentieux*), conferences, library, labour agency or registry office, besides publishing a year-book and a newspaper, the "Bulletin Commercial." Next in size comes the *Syndicat des Meuniers de France* with 3,348 members. It was founded in 1886 and maintains a fund for mutual insurance against fire, legal officers, a registry office for mill employés and a library, besides publishing a year-book and a weekly and a monthly journal.

Syndical chamber of wine dealers.

Syndicate of millers.

The *Chambre Syndicale de la Boucherie de Paris* enrolls 2,800 members. It was founded in 1868 and possesses several institutions. The *Chambre Syndicale de la Boulangerie de Paris*, which has 1,417 members and funds, laboratory, library, &c., is one of the oldest of all these syndicates, dating from 1801. Still older, however, are the *Communauté des Marchands de Bois à œuvrer* (with 60 members) founded in 1498, and the *Chambre Syndicale des Marchands de Bois à brûler*, founded in 1549. These two societies, which were originally founded by royal decrees (*ordonnance*) never ceased to exist and were re-organised as syndical chambers in accordance with the law of 1884.(1) The largest of the employers' syndicates formed within the last few years is the *Chambre Syndicale des Laitiers-nourisseurs* (dairymen), founded in 1890 and now enrolling 800 members.

Syndical chamber of butchers.

Two ancient foundations.

(2.) Marseilles.

Marseilles has now 59 employers' syndicates, and of these 45 have been formed during or since 1884. None of them approach in size to the larger Paris syndicates. The largest is the *Association des Artistes Marseillais*, with 350 members. It possesses a provident or relief fund and was founded in 1888.

(3.) Lyons.

Lyons has 54 of these syndicates. The most important seems to be the Bakers' Syndicate, founded 1882. It has 600 members whom it assists with legal advice, and it publishes a "Courrier du Commerce" and a year book. The *Chambre Syndicale des entrepreneurs de Travaux de Bâtiment* (builders), founded 1863, has 380 members and gives legal advice. The *Association de la Fabrique Lyonnaise* (makers of woven fabrics) has 205 members and a benefit fund, and gives legal assistance.

(4.) Bordeaux.

Bordeaux has 42 employers' associations. The largest, the *Association des Hoteliers Restaurateurs et Cafetiers* has 285 members and supports a mutual aid fund. It also gives legal advice and provides a registry office.

(iii.) Distribution by trades.

When the *Annuaire des Syndicats Professionels* is consulted from the point of view of the trades it soon becomes manifest that the employers' syndical movement has advanced comparatively but a little way in the great manufacturing industries. There are no great mining associations like those in England, and comparatively few associations in the cotton, woollen, and silk industries. A good many associations are registered under the somewhat general description of metallurgists.(2) At Lyons, Lille, and Charleville, considerable syndicates of this description are to be found. Prominent amongst associations in the iron trade is the *Comité des Forges de France*, founded in 1888 and with 82 members registered. The president is the Baron Reille and the vice-president the Baron de Nervo. This society founded, early in 1891, a mutual insurance fund, against accidents, which represents more than 40,000 workmen and 50 million francs in yearly wages.(3)

Métallurgistes.

Building trade.

In the building trade other syndical chambers, the master masons of the Seine department, with 495 members, founded in 1809, and the master plumbers with 140 members, founded in 1817, have similar important funds. The last is distinguished besides by a board of arbitration.

(1) Annuaire des Synd. Prof., p. 221.

(2) The term *métallurgistes*, which has been translated *metal workers* in the Belgian Report (Vol. IV.), appears by the classification in the Statistique des Grèves, 1892, to correspond more nearly to *engineers*; but in the year book of syndicates it might apply to both engineers and to metal workers.—G. D.

(3) Annuaire des Synd. Prof., p. 237. "La Réforme Sociale," Vol. xxiii., p. 220.

Chemical, clothing, and other trades.

The chemical and clothing trades are represented by a good many syndicates, especially the latter. In the former the largest is the *Chambre Syndicale des Produits chimiques*, Paris, with 246 members, founded in 1860. It is among the ordinary retail tradesmen, however, the bakers, the grocers, the butchers, and the wine-merchants, that the syndical movement has extended most widely so far as employers are concerned. Mention of the important syndicate of brewers of the North of France, with 580 members and founded in 1889 at Lille, should not be omitted.

(C.) *Workmen's Syndicates.*

(i.) Position and membership of the workmen's syndicates.

In a report of a sub-commission of the Higher Council of Labour, prepared in 1891, it is mentioned with regret that workmen's syndicates are only very slowly organised. "There are many workers who are "not yet organised (*syndiqués*) and cannot profit from "the advantages of the law of 1884. This law so "excellent from every point of view has not yet "yielded all the results that were looked for . . . "Prejudices, often unjust, exist against certain of the "syndicates, and in six years their progress has not "been such as might have been hoped for."(1)

Examination of the introductory tables in the *Annuaire des Syndicats Professionels* shows, nevertheless, that there is a steady, even if slow, growth of these organisations. The number of workmen's syndicates in 1891 (July 1st) was 1,250 as against 1,589 in 1892 (July 1st) showing an increase in number of 339 syndicates. The increase in numbers of syndicated workmen, shown at the same time, was 83,618 or 283,770 in 1892 as against 205,152 in 1891. Thus, not only had the number of syndicates increased, but at the same time the average size of the syndicates had slightly increased, from rather over 164 members to rather over 181 members. Comparison of the tables showing numbers of syndicates with those showing numbers of syndicated workmen, brings out a curious ebb and flow in the relations of the series. It will be sufficient to illustrate this by taking several of the most important industrial departments and combining them in the following table :—

TABLE VI.

Departments.	July 1891.		July 1892.	
	Syndicates.	Members.	Syndicates.	Members.
Ardennes - - -	57	9,352	83	16,331
Bouches-du-Rhône	87	11,887	89	12,301
Gironde - - -	73	7,348	88	9,588
Loire - - -	77	20,032	88	12,089
Nord - - -	63	15,332	84	26,010
Pas-de-Calais -	19	18,916	20	28,045
Rhône - - -	125	17,418	155	25,160
Seine - - -	172	58,514	217	89,458

The question arises, how is it that in the Loire department, for example, with a considerable increase in number of syndicates the numbers of organised workers have so strikingly decreased, while in the Pas-de-Calais district, where only one new syndicate has arisen, the membership of the existing syndicates is considerable. The cause may be local or connected with trade disputes, or may be determined by fluctuations in the more important trades of the districts.(2)

(ii). Attitude of the working men in France to the syndicates.

No doubt, everywhere in France the readiness of the workmen in general to join such organisations is not equal to the readiness of their more active leaders to form them. "Either French workmen in the mass are "generally sceptical as to the practical personal advantages to be obtained by such associations or "· · · individualism . . . is still very strong "in French nature, and disinclines a good workman "in times of prosperity to restrict his freedom of "action by obligations which though, perhaps, conducive towards raising the wages of his neighbour, "may for all he knows sensibly lower his own . . . "Many employers to whom it is essential to get work "punctually done, have been quick to observe such "hesitation on the part of their best workmen, and "have succeeded in preventing them from joining "unions by the encouragement they have given to "personal energy . . . Were bad times to come "and steady workmen as well as bad ones to be thrown "out of employment, it is more than likely that the "numbers would soon rapidly swell, for although still "shy of combination in practice the majority may be "said to have been thoroughly won over to it as a "theory."(3)

The case of the growth of the miners' organisation at Carmaux shows, however, that a very rapid development of a syndicate may take place without the condition above referred to, and even under circumstances of great industrial prosperity.(4) There is very little doubt, however, as Mr. Stephen points out, that the system of syndicates, spread over every important industrial district is one into which the labour forces of the country could very rapidly be drafted, and that the attitude of the unsyndicated majority towards it is rather one of observation than opposition.(5) There is no doubt as to the apprehension existing in the minds of most employers and amongst certain schools of economists (notably the school of Le Play represented by *La Reforme Sociale*, as to the possible developments of labour organisations. An economist of the type of M. Claudio Jannet would, however, probably challenge the conclusion drawn by Mr. Stephen that the activity shown by so many employers in promoting the welfare and interests of their workmen is due mainly to such apprehensions, and would trace it rather to the traditional and national spirit of *patronage* and *bonhomie* which he considers as firmly underlying the social relations of the employing to the industrial classes in France.(6) The view of this writer is that while the foundation of society is better in France than in many other countries, "the instability of the Government and "the harassing strife of political parties are a constant "cause of excitement for the masses," and that the anarchist and collectivist leaders are not slow to take advantage of this fact. He holds that while many organisations have been formed under such leaders with hostile intent to the employers, it is important that no legislative obstacles should be put in the way of industrial association. He maintains in fact that greater freedom to associate and to hold and receive properties excepting land is required than at present exists, while at the same time full safeguarding of freedom to remain outside labour organisations is also necessary.(7)

(iii.) Attitude of the capitalists to the syndicates.

(iv.) Objects of workmen's syndicates.

The chief specified objects of workmen's syndicates are (1) to obtain as high a rate of wages as possible for their members, (2) to help those who are out of work, (3) to act as registry offices or labour agencies and find employment for their members gratis. Out of the 1,589 workmen's syndicates in 1892, only 176 had registered labour agencies. Friendly society benefits were rendered by 379 syndicates. Some syndicates give a daily allowance of from one franc to two francs to men out of work; 70 societies in 1892 had regular out of work funds registered. Other syndicates assist members to migrate in search of employment. It is the general custom to exclude foremen and overlookers from the workmen's syndicates. "All "members who become heads of departments or overlookers in workshops shall be considered as repre"sentatives of their employers, by reason of which "they lose their right to be members of the Syndical "Chamber."(8) The entrance fees average about 1 "franc, while monthly subscriptions generally range between 50 centimes and 1 franc. Often the syndicates have no regular president, while the committee of administration varies from 15 to 30 members.(9)

(v.) Distribution of workmen's syndicates, by towns.

Taking the *Annuaire des Syndicats* from the point of view of organisation of workmen in the great centres of industry, we find interesting information as to the distribution of syndicates by towns.

(1.) Paris.

Paris curiously, is the centre of fewer workmen's than employers' syndicates, having 222 of the former as against 323 of the latter in July 1892. Thirteen work-

(1) Conseil Supérieur du Travail. Première Session, 1891, p. 49.
(2) On this point the Statistique de Grèves (p. 103) throws no light.
(3) F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, pp. vi.-vii.
(4) Cf. infra, p. 41.
(5) There are four departments where no workmen's syndicates exist. Cf. Ann. des Synd. Prof., p. xv.
(6) French Catholics and the Social Question. Article by M. Claudio Jannet, in the Quarterly Journal of Economics, January 1893 pp., 146-7.
(7) Cf., also Etude sur les Syndicats. Glotin, pp. 424-5, and elsewhere.
(8) *See* draft of articles of Association. Appendix B., p. 11 of F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258; also p. viii. of the same Report.
(9) F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. viii.

Gas workers' syndicate.

men's syndicates were formed during the previous year. Of these the most important was the *Syndicat des Travaillers de la Compagnie Parisienne d'eclairage et de Chauffage par le gaz*, which registers 6,200 members and has its central place of meeting at the Bourse du Travail. It is interesting to notice in this connection the recent innovation of the Company in according to all their employés a share of 2 per cent. in their profits, the share being divided according to numbers of days worked and not according to salaries earned.(1)

Typographical printers' syndical chamber.

The oldest workmen's syndicate of any size in Paris is the *Chambre Syndicale Typographique*, founded in 1839 with 2,500 members; it possesses a library, publishes a newspaper and maintains a fund for mutual aid and a labour agency. In 1873 the working plumbers' syndicate was formed and now has 1,319 members; it also maintains a library and a bureau de placement, besides technical classes for its members. The largest syndicates are those of railway employés, viz.:

Associations of railway employés.

(1.) The *Chambre Syndicale des Ouvriers et Employés de Chemins de Fer français*, founded in 1890, and now registering 15,000 members. It has its centre at the Labour Exchange.

(2.) The *Syndicat Professionnel des Employés de Chemins de Fer et des Industries Similaires*, founded in 1884 and registering 7,000 members. This society maintains 50 district committees, gives legal aid and publishes a monthly newspaper.

Other important syndicates are those of the employés of the General Omnibus and Tramways Companies, with 3,043 members, and the cab-drivers of the Seine department with 4,000 members, and a provident fund. The syndicate of mechanics, stokers and conductors of steam engines (*machines à vapeur*), founded in 1885, includes 3,800 members and supports technical classes. There are two important syndicates for commercial travellers numbering 2,900 and 2,895 members respectively. There are several women's syndicates, for example, the laundresses and two or three mixed (men and women), notably the *Chambre Syndicale des Ouvriers et Ouvrières aux Tabacs*, with 1,070 members.

(2.) Lyons.

The special manufacturing interests of Lyons are well represented by the workmen's syndicates, of which there are in all 126. The majority are of very moderate dimensions, however, though the following are of considerable importance: (*a*) Trade syndicate of velvet weavers, founded 1884, registering 2,500 members; (*b*) Trade syndicate of weavers, founded 1884, registering 1,000 members; (*c*) Guild (*corporation*) of foremen weavers, founded 1885, and registering 1,150 members and various institutions; (*d*) Guild of employés in silk factories, founded 1886, registering 280 members; (*e*) Syndical chamber of workwomen in the boot and shoe trade, founded 1888, registering 420 members; (*f*) Syndical chamber of workmen in chemical workshops, founded 1891, and registering 420 members. Marseilles has 75 workmen's syndicates. Of these the largest is the syndical chamber of workwomen in the tobacco factories, with 950 members. Other important syndicates are: (*a*) the *Chambre Syndical des Employés d'Hôtels, Restaurants, &c.*, with 511 members, and supporting various institutions; (*b*) the *Chambre Syndicale des Cochers et Conducteurs d'Omnibus de la Ville de Marseille*, with 325 members; (*c*) the Syndicate of Custom House Clerks, which has mutual aid and provident funds, conferences, a library, and a labour agency.

(3.) Marseilles.

(4.) Bordeaux.

Bordeaux registers 64 workmen's syndicates. Of these may be mentioned especially (*a*) the *Chambre Syndicale des Employés de Commerce* (clerks and shop assistants), with 1,764 members, and supporting various funds, classes, &c.; (*b*) the *Association des Voyageurs et Représentants de Commerce* (commercial travellers), with 570 members and funds; (*c*) the *Union Syndicale des Marins du Commerce*, with 203 members, funds, library, and agencies; (*d*) the *Chambre Syndicale des Employés des Tramways et Omnibus*, with 565 members and a provident fund.

(5.) Toulouse.

Toulouse registers 58 workmen's syndicates. Of these may be mentioned the *Syndicat des Ouvriers et Ouvrières aux Tabacs*, with 1,200 members, and the *Union Métallurgique du Département de la Haute-Garonne* with 250 members.

(1) Cf. "La Reforme Sociale," May 1st, 1893, p. 720.

(6.) St. Etienne.

St. Étienne registers 45 workmen's syndicates. The largest of these are three miners' syndicates, founded in 1876, 1888 and 1889, numbering 800, 400 and 234 members respectively.

(7.) Nantes.

Nantes registers 24 workmen's syndicates. The largest is the syndicate of workmen and workwomen in the tobacco trade with 904 members.

(8.) Lille.

Lille registers 25 workmen's syndicates. Of these the *Chambre Syndicale de l'Industrie Textile* with 1,200 members, and the *Union Syndicale de la Métallurgie* with 1,300 members, should be mentioned.

(vi.) Distribution by trades:—

(1.) Building trades.

Looking at this subject from the point of view of distribution by trades, we find that the building trades include the greatest number of workmen's organisations, which in all branches are 267. The largest are to be found in the big towns, as might be expected. The plumbers' society in Paris numbers 1,317 members, the masons' society and the carpenters' society in Bordeaux number respectively 510 and 240 members. The only other trade societies of any size connected with building are to be found at Perigueux (Dordogne) with 500 members and Clermont-Ferrand (Puy de Dôme) with 470 members: both include members representing various branches of the trade.

(2.) Clothing trades.

Syndicates representing the clothing trades come next in point of number, amounting in all to 187. Angers, Lyons, Mont Luçon, Nancy, Grenoble, are the chief centres. The largest is the *Chambre Syndicale ouvrière de la Cordonnerie d'Angers*, with 900 members. The same branch of the trade is represented at Lyons by a syndicate of 420 workmen. The glove making industry is represented at Grenoble by the *Association Syndicale des ouvrières Gantières de l'Isère* with 320 members.

(3.) Textile trades.

The textile trades with 160 syndicates are represented by very much larger societies. The majority are to be found in the Ardennes, Loire, Nord and Rhône departments. Lyons (Rhône) shows the largest syndicates and the greatest number of them, among towns; the most important being the *Syndicat Professionnel des Tisseurs de Velours* with 2,500 members. At Roubaix (Nord) the *Chambre Syndicale Ouvrière Textile de Roubaix* has 2,085 members; in the same department at Fourmies there is a similar syndicate with 2,000 workwomen enrolled. Thizy (Rhône) is the only other town containing a syndicate of the same size. Mixed unions of men and women exist in considerable numbers.

(4.) Metallurgic trades.

The iron and steel trades are represented by 155 syndicates, the largest being at Hautmont (Nord), the *Chambre Syndicale des Ouvriers Métallurgistes et autres du Bassin de Maubeuge* (founded 1890) with 2,501 members. Next in size comes the *Union Syndicale de la Métallurgie de Lille et Environs* (founded 1890) with 1,800 members. In the Ardennes there are thirty syndicates of workmen in metallurgy, the largest being the *Association Syndicale des Ouvriers Métallurgistes de Nouzon*, (founded 1885) with 1,547 members. Lille has a *Union Syndicale de la Métallurgie* with 1,800 members.

(5.) Mining and quarrying industries.

To the mining industry we must turn for the largest of all these associations in France. Lens is the centre of the *Chambre Syndicale des Ouvriers Mineurs du Pas-de-Calais*, founded in 1884, which now enrolls over 25,000 members. As the total mining population of France is 134,060 (2) and few of the miners' organisations fall below 200 in number of members, and several rise above 1,000, the strength of association in this industry is considerable. For Sin le Noble (Nord) a miners' syndicate numbering 2,000 is registered, and at Dorignies in the same department another with over 1,000 members. At Trélazé (Maine-et-Loire) the largest of the quarrymen's syndicates is to be found, viz., *Chambre Syndicale des Ouvriers Ardoisiers* with 740 members.

(6.) Printing and allied trades.

In the printing and allied trades classed in France as *Industries du Livre*, which include 150 workmen's syndicates, the largest is the *Chambre Syndicale Typographique Parisienne* which was founded in 1839 and now registers 2,500 members: it supports funds, a library and a registry office. The second syndicate in point of size is also to be found in Paris with 685 members and various institutions. Other important typographical associations are at Lille (350 members), Lyons (240 members), Marseilles (185 members), Toulouse (180 members).

(7.) Tobacco trade.

The tobacco trade is represented by 19 syndicates of considerable size. In Toulouse 1,200 operatives, men

(2) Statistique de l'Industrie Minérale, 1891, p. 69.

and women, are enrolled in one syndicate, in Châteauroux (Indre department), 1,176, in Paris, 1,070, and in Morlaix (Finisterre), 1,015. Most of the other tobacco operatives' syndicates enroll more than 500 members.

(8.) Transport industries.

The most important syndicates connected with transport industries have their centre in Paris and have already been referred to under that head. In addition to those may be mentioned the *Chambre Syndicale professionnelle des Ouvriers et Employés des Chemins de Fer de l'agglomération de Tours* with 650 members.

Comparative strength of organisation.

The following table comparing the strength of organisation in some of the more important trades has been compiled from the pages of the *Annuaire des Syndicats* for 1892, from the *Annuaire Statistique de la France*, from the Yearbook of the Labour Exchange, Paris, and from figures supplied by Sir Joseph Crowe:—

TABLE VII.

Trade.	Total Numbers of Employed.	Members of registered Syndicates.
1. Engineering, ironworks and foundries.	99,446	36,069
2. Textiles - - - -	1,166,170	31,544
3. Ceramics and Glass - -	56,500	5,546
4. Mining - - - -	134,060	41,709
5. Gasworks - - -	15,000	6,315
6. Tobacco - - - -	20,000	12,000

4.—Joint or Mixed Syndicates.

(i.) Work of joint or mixed syndicates.

Another form of association, of which we have hardly any experience in the United Kingdom (1) and from which in a great measure the solution of the labour question is expected by representatives of various parties and shades of opinion in France, has to be considered, although, as the curve on page 18 will show, the movement in this direction is slow compared with the rate of growth in other organisations. The scope and work of the Joint Syndicates (*Syndicats mixtes*) have not, in the opinion of Mr. Loomis, United States Consul at St. Étienne (2) had "exact justice" done to them by Mr. Stephen.

They offer, or are offered by their promoters as a practical stepping stone to those "continuous relations "between employers and employed" which in the words of M. Gibon, a follower of Le Play, "should "have the effect of dispersing from among working "men agitators, ringleaders, politicians, and revolu- "tionary socialists."(3) "It is by this," says M. Paul Ribot, "that the social question will be solved, not "by association pure and simple but by association "between employers and employed under initiative "of the directing classes (*patronage de la classe dirigeante*).(4) As a matter of fact the control of the movement is mainly, if not entirely, in the hands of the Catholics.(5) It remains to be seen yet how far they will be able to meet or take effective hold of the socialist rank and file by this particular method. In the meantime they assert that they are convinced that so long as "the actual particularism of syndicates con- "tinues, it will be impossible to make them the "instruments of trade organisation," that no law can remedy the onesidedness of the actual syndical régime, and that "corporate professional organisation, uniting "the two factors of industry alone can confer on a "syndicate the privilege of speaking in the name of a "profession or representing it, even *vis-à-vis* with "those which remain divided."(6) These words are echoed under various forms through the pages of the Catholic organ from which they are quoted, and this was the view advocated by the Comte de Mun at an earlier stage of his career (7) before he began to despair of reorganisation of the old corporate form of industry, and turned his thoughts definitely in the direction of State socialism or extended State interference to regulate industry.

The difficulties attendant on formation of these joint syndicates are sympathetically pointed out by M. Glotin in his study already referred to.(8) He recognises all the advantages which might be secured by this form of association, but is obliged to confess that the difficulties are many as soon as the system is attempted in practice. First, it is rare to find employers and employed who both wish to unite in association; secondly, when a syndicate is established the constitution is complicated in a democratic country by the fact that the employed are more numerous than the employers. The complications can only be surmounted when the ends to be attained by such institutions, namely, harmony and mutual understanding, are already achieved. Certain writers, for example M. Jannet,(9) M. Hyvernat,(10) and M. Gibon, in the article above quoted, hold that such difficulties might be practically met by the institution of collective properties, under a more enlightened law of association than at present rules in France. "Unfortunately in France, liberty of "association only exists subject to great restrictions. ". . . The formation of mutual associations between "employers and workmen presupposes full liberty of "association and perfect freedom in instituting per- "petual collective properties devoted to the public "welfare. The laws of the United States are in this "respect the ideal of the French Catholics; and when "a turn in affairs puts them in power they will "endeavour to introduce such laws in their own "country."(11) This writer holds that such mixed organisations as the *Union Co-opérative de la Fabrique Lyonnaise*, which is composed of weavers, clerks, and manufacturers, if truly voluntary and endowed with unrestricted right of receiving legacies, would become a valuable element of social stability. He would no doubt strongly contest the view suggested as to the ulterior motives of the promoters of these mixed associations, by Mr. Condie Stephen, who says: "The two "extreme political parties in France . . . . are "equally straining every muscle to weld the wage "earners into formidable battalions. Perhaps the "distinction between the policy of the two may be "described by saying that while one is endeavouring "to convert by holding out prospects of an order that "may never be realised, the other is seeking to enroll "recruits by a system of patronage and privilege of "which the ordinary workman is quite prepared "occasionally to avail himself without necessarily "being converted to the doctrines preached."(12) Mr. Stephen sees under the surface of this phase of the movement of Catholic socialism a marked though "skilfully veiled reactionary tendency," which is based upon "hierarchical ideas and prejudices."(13) The slight sketch of these Catholic syndicates given by Mr. Stephen certainly suggests the doubt that they can ever serve to furnish that free school for training in self-government among working men which to an Englishman seems the matter of paramount value and importance in association. The view, however, of the real meaning for France of the "institutions patronales" and the "evolution du patronage," which is insisted upon by many writers in "La Réforme Sociale," as well as by M. Le Play himself, coincides in all important respects with that presented of them by M. Jannet, and it is these institutions which, according to the various promoters of them, must form the solid basis of the joint associations.(14)

(ii.) Relation to Catholic socialism.

A model for the rules of such a syndicate recently published (15) provides for the administration by a council, which is to be composed of four employers, four subordinate officials, four workmen, elected by a majority of votes in a general assembly; the council is to choose a bureau or committee, which is to be re-elected by them annually. It is formed of a president (an employer) and three vice-presidents (an employer, an official, and a workman), a secretary and a

(iii.) Model for rules of a joint syndicate.

(1) The "Free Labour" Associations of Southampton and Plymouth, and the Joint Committees and Wages Boards in the Coal and Iron Trades, so different in working and origin, are the only groups to which we can turn for comparison.
(2) Consular Reports on Commerce, Manufactures, &c., No. 148, p. 6.
(3) "La Réforme Sociale." May 1st and 16th, 1893. "Des conditions de l'Harmonie dans l'Industrie." A. Gibon, cf. also succeeding article (May 16) on "La Liberté d'Association."
(4) Du Rôle sociale des Idées Chretiennes. Paul Ribot, Paris. E. Plon, 1879. p. 609.
(5) Cf. Papacy, Socialism, and Democracy. A. Leroy Beaulieu, Chapman and Hall, 1892. Chaps. xiii., xiv.
(6) L'Association Catholique. May 1893. p. 100.
(7) Cf. Discours Politiques, Comte de Mun. I. Socialismo Cattolico, F. Nitti, ch. 10.
(8) "Etude Historique, &c., sur les Syndicats Professionels. Part vi., ch. 2.
(9) "French Catholics and the Social Question," Quarterly Journal of Economics. January 1893.
(10) "Organisation de l'Agglomeration Ouvriere." L'Association Catholique. May 15, 1893.
(11) Article in the "Quarterly Journal of Economics" quoted, pp. 151-6., cf. also "Papacy, Socialism, and Democracy," p. 199-207.
(12) F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. xiii.
(13) Do. do. do. p. xiv.
(14) Cf. infra, pp. 52-3
(15) "L'Association Catholique." February 1893, p. 161.

treasurer. The council is to meet once in three months, "decide upon admission and exclusion of members, "settle the budget, verify the accounts, decide on the "application of subscriptions and funds of the associa- "tion; attend to the execution of the statutes and "decisions of the association; look after its financial, "trade, and provident institutions." The council is permitted to call in the assistance of a consulting committee, which may be formed of persons outside the association. There is to be an arbitration board, formed of two members of the council, one an employer and the other a workman, and one member of the consulting committee, who is to preside.(1)

It is an instance of the sometimes elastic application of the law of 1884 that many of these associations are registered under the name of some saint, and in their statutes enjoin on their members abstinence from work on Sunday (*le répos dominical*) and attendance at an annual mass for the repose of deceased members. The law had specially declared that religion as well as politics should be excluded from the syndicates.(2)

(iv.) Statistics concerning joint syndicates.

It seems worth while, in view of the special pretensions put forward on behalf of the mixed syndicates, to give as complete a view as possible of their practical achievements. The subjoined tables are drawn from the latest official register of them. It will be seen that the largest is a women's syndicate in a branch of the textile trades at Lyons, with 1,400 members. Next comes the carders, spinners, and weavers' syndicate at Roubaix with 1,346 members. The majority are of insignificant size, and not more than 144 syndicates in all, with a membership of 18,742 are to be found as yet in France.

(1) Cf. "L'Association Catholique," February 1893, p. 160.

(2) The "Œuvre des Cercles" has lately endeavoured to promote formation of "honorary committees composed of men of the higher classes outside the trades, whose duty it would be to act as arbitrators between members of the syndicate." "Papacy, Socialism, and Democracy,' p. 182.

Table VIII.

Mixed Syndicates.

Trade.	Town.	Department.	No. of Members.	Date of Foundation.
1. Builders	Château Thierry	Aisne	93	1891
2. Horticulturists	Moulins	Allier	68	1890
3. Clothiers	„	„	15	1890
4. Builders	„	„	30	1890
5. Retail stores	„	„	18	1890
6. Cabmen	Vichy	„	40	1890
7. „	Mentone	Alpes Maritimes	49	1891
8. Metallurgists	Cons la Granville	Ardennes	51	1891
9. Iron trade	Thilay	„	83	1892
10. Hosiery	Troyes	Aube	60	1887
11. Building	Carcassone	Aude	73	1888
12. Clothing	„	„	160	1888
13. „	„	„	43	1889
14. „	Marseilles	Bouches du Rhône	15	1888
15. Mechanics, blacksmiths, &c.	„	„	18	1888
16. Chemicals	„	„	30	1888
17. Weavers	„	„	20	1888
18. Builders	„	„	22	1888
19. Journalists	„	„	11	1890
20. Builders	„	„	115	1891
21. Mariners	„	„	200	1892
22. Fishers	Martigues	„	50	1889
23. Gardeners	Caen	Calvados	32	1889
24. Corn Trade	„	„	6	1890
25. Carriers	„	„	6	1890
26. Horticulture	Honfleur	„	120	1891
27. Brandy trade	Cognac	Charente	650	1890
28. Newspaper vendors	Dijon	Côte d'Or	8	1885
29. Builders	Sarlat	Dordogne	23	1890
30. „	Besançon	Doubs	40	1891
31. Cabdrivers	„	„	50	1891
32. Horticulture	Pont Audemer	Eure	36	1888
33. Sailors (*coasting*)	Blaye	Gironde	107	1890
34. Jewellers	Bordeaux	„	70	1884
35. Shoemakers	„	„	130	1887
36. Restaurateurs	„	„	412	1889
37. Fishers	Sainte Terre	„	130	1881
38. Fishers and sailors	Cette	Hérault	66	1881
39. Builders	Rennes	Ille et Vilaine	550	1887
40. Metallurgy	„	„	100	1887
41. Leather	„	„	75	1887
42. Gardeners	„	„	68	1888
43. Book trade	„	„	70	1889
44. Basket makers	„	„	27	1890
45. Restaurateurs	„	„	75	1891
46. „	Tours	Indre et Loire	23	1887
47. Musical instruments	Grenoble	Isère	30	1888
48. Shoemakers	Blois	Loir et Cher	40	1885
49. Watchmakers, &c.	St. Étienne	Loire	35	1890
50. Cabinet makers	Nantes	Loire Inférieure	102	1883
51. Gardeners	„	„	115	1885
52. Restaurateurs	„	„	100	1886
53. Commercial travellers	„	„	26	1890
54. Builders	Orléans	Loiret	60	1887
55. Wine and vinegar	„	„	48	1889
56. Builders	Agen	Lot et Garonne	12	1885
57. Joiners	Angers	Maine et Loire	117	1880
58. Textiles	„	„	98	1886
59. Gardeners	„	„	78	1886
60. Shoemakers	„	„	31	1887

Trade.	Town.	Department.	No. of Members.	Date of Foundation.
61. Builders	Angers	Maine et Noire	75	1887
62. Metallurgy	"	"	63	1887
63. Tailors and drapers	"	"	13	1888
64. Horticulture, &c.	Doué la Fontaine	"	700	1887
65. Builders	Ingrandes	"	7	1890
66. Purveyors	"	"	7	1890
67. Clothiers	"	"	12	1890
68. Gardeners	Saumur	"	(1)	1890
69. Builders	"	"	6	1890
70. Stationers	"	"	5	1890
71. Ironmongers	"	"	12	1890
72. Purveyors	"	"	30	1890
73. Drapers	"	"	47	1890
74. Purveyors	Segré	"	14	1889
75. Builders	"	"	26	1889
76. Clothiers	"	"	14	1889
77. Book trade	"	"	3	1889
78. Builders	Rheims	Marne	91	1889
79. Metallurgy	Laval	Mayenne	69	1888
80. Gardeners	"	"	76	1888
81. Dressmakers	"	"	265	1890
82. Metallurgy	Cousances aux forges	Meuse	50	1888
83. Weavers	Armentières	Nord	(1)	1892
84. Iron workers	Berlamont	"	18	1885
85. Shipping	Condé sur l'Escaut	"	150	1861
86. Sailors	Dunkirk	"	131	1891
87. Worsted	Fourmies	"	380	1889
88. Shoemakers	Lille	"	60	1885
89. Cotton	"	"	950	1886
90. Metal workers	"	"	120	1886
91. Joiners and carpenters	"	"	49	1889
92. Carding, spinning, and dyeing	Roubaix	"	1,346	1889
93. Newsvendors	"	"	38	1890
94. Worsted	Tourcoing	"	150	1887
95. Combing, spinning, &c.	"	"	1,101	1889
96. Printing	St. Just en Chaussée	Oise	12	1891
97. Lace making	Alençon	Orne	21	1887
98. Builders	Clermont Ferrand	Puy de Dôme	6	1890
99. Horticulturists	Pau	Pyrenées (Basses)	41	1885
100. Builders	"	"	52	1886
101. Salters	Collioure	Pyrenées Orientales	15	1886
102. Weavers	Lyons	Rhône	630	1877
103. Trimmings	"	"	82	1884
104. Weavers	"	"	65	1888
105. Builders	"	"	260	1888
106. Plaiters (" Bouillionneuses ") (2)	"	"	1,400	1892
107. Builders	Thonons	Savoie (Haute)	80	1889
108. Painters and decorators	Paris	Seine	60	1877
109. Horticulturists	"	"	1,000	1880
110. Lithographers	"	"	26	1880
111. Teachers	"	"	200	1884
112. Statuary	"	"	45	1885
113. Jewellers	"	"	12	1885
114. Church servants	"	"	180	1886
115. Restaurateurs	"	"	500	1887
116. Jockeys	"	"	500	1887
117. Teachers	"	"	(1)	1888
118. Moulders and cutters	"	"	(1)	1888
119. Basket makers	"	"	207	1888
120. Restaurateurs	"	"	50	1888
121. Voluntary schools	"	"	550	1889
122. Cabdrivers	"	"	180	1890
123. Mechanics	"	"	50	1890
124. Bakers	"	"	42	1891
125. Restaurateurs	"	"	40	1891
126. Furniture	"	"	20	1891
127. Book	"	"	20	1891
128. Purveyors	"	"	20	1891
129. Teachers	"	"	10	1892
130. Clothiers	"	"	145	1892
131. Textiles	Elbœuf	Seine Inférieure	40	1889
132. Cabdrivers	Le Havre	"	88	1889
133. "	Versailles	Seine et Oise	28	1892
134. Textiles	Amiens	Somme	20	1890
135. Cabdrivers	Toulon	Var	25	1885
136. Builders	Poitiers	Vienne	120	1886
137. Horticulturists	"	"	120	1886
138. Clothing	"	"	30	1887
139. Milliners and dressmakers	Limoges	Vienne (Haute)	160	1889
140. Builders	"	"	200	1890
141. Porcelain	"	"	70	1891
142. Purveyors	"	"	60	1891
143. Furnishers	"	"	40	1891
144. Dressmakers	"	"	50	1891
			18,742	

(1) Numbers not recorded.
(2) Bouillon, "Certains gros plis ronds qu'on fait a quelques étoffes pour la parure et l'ornement. Dictionnaire de l'Académie."

(5.) *Agricultural Syndicates.*

(i.) Progress and character of agricultural syndicates.

Of the regular agricultural syndicates, which M. Kergall, founder of the *Société des Agriculteurs de France*, (1) contrasts as *syndicats de paix* with the *syndicats de guerre* of the ordinary industrial type, there were registered on July 2nd, 1892, 863, with 313,800 members. This is in a country with over two and a half million proprietors, and over two and two-third millions field-workers or day labourers. It seems a small proportion, but, when one considers the care with which the syndicate select members, and that they only admit them upon presentation and after inquiry, it is nevertheless important.(2)

Reference to the curves in the table of the movement of syndicates given on page 18, will show that the formation of this class of industry has been most rapid from 1885–1888, and again since 1890. Of the four kinds of syndicates these "may be said to have rendered "the most practical service to their members."(3) Their aims in general are of the sober, thrifty character that all parties agree in attributing to the mass of the rural democracy. "In the use that they make of association "the agriculturists are at the head of the social "movement . . . Where the industrial labourer, follow- "ing the example from Germany," speaks of "war between classes," the countryman responds "union of classes." "In the agricultural syndicates one sees the proprietor side by side with the farmer," and at times "the master beside the workman." As yet, however, even when the articles of association provide for admission of the labourer very few have availed themselves of the privilege. In some cases separate associations are being formed by the day labourers, notably among the wood cutters at Morvan.(4) Subscriptions vary from 1 franc to 5 francs a year. A number of typical rules and regulations may be consulted in the *Annuaire des Syndicats Agricoles*.(5)

General aims.

The objects which they generally propose are: to unite their members in the procuring of the raw material of agriculture (*e.g.*, manure, salt grain, &c.) at the least cost; to suppress as far as possible fraud in the sale of grains and manures; to support and encourage technical education suitable to the particular locality or district in which the syndicate lies;(6) to promote harmony in the relations of the members with each other;(7) to take every opportunity to impress upon the government, central and local, the needs and claims of agriculture; "to attend to and assist as far as possible "to solve, by the light of their experience, such agri- "cultural questions as may be brought before them "by members . . . to conciliate in matters of dispute; "to furnish lists of experts or arbitrators to tribunals; ". . . and to give unity to the rules and usages preva- "lent in various parts of the department which affect "the relations between proprietors, farmers, domestics, "day labourers, herdsmen, &c."(8)

Model for articles of association.

The model for articles of association adopted by the *Société des Agriculteurs de France* shows the tendency to widen the basis of these syndicates, under the second section relating to "composition." This provides that the following may become members: (1) Proprietors, including those who sublet to farmers or métayers. (2) The said farmers or métayers with (3) their servants and workpeople, and (4) generally all residents in the neighbourhood who exercise a trade or profession allied to agriculture.(9)

Changes noticed by M. Hautefeuille.

The Annuaire quoted is prefaced by the following remarks as to the movement of the syndicates. "One "hundred and fifty new syndicates have been formed "(during 1892). Their total is about 1,100. It is in "the new associations that the greatest activity is to "be found . . . . (but) nearly all the syndicates "are surer and more regular in their action in all that "concerns purchases . . . . The talk in the press "and reunions which has found its echo in Parliament "and official councils has attracted the lively atten- "tion of a great number of the syndicates . . . . "Many seek to organise agricultural credit indepen- "dently. . . . . Some . . . . have success- "fully formed insurance funds against hail or loss of "cattle. The general tendency is to come out of the "old grooves, and to seek to render new services."

(ii.) Arbitration and conciliation.

The table at the end of the Annuaire of M. Hautefeuille shows that 93 syndicates have instituted boards of conciliation or arbitration. By way of illustration the following may be specified:—

(1.) The *Syndicat agricole Saint-Michel* at Pontiacq-Vielle-pinte in the Basses. Pyrénées (87 members) which was established between proprietors, farmers, and workmen, February 1888, and which is affiliated with the *Union des Syndicats Agricoles de France;* its members subscribe 5 francs a year, and it has a reserve fund of 1,000 francs acquired by gifts. It has a "bureau of con- "ciliation for settling by arbitration differences "arising among associated members."(10)

(2.) The *Syndicat régional agricole du Morvan et de l'Auxois* at Sanlieu in the Côte-d'or department which was established among "employ- "ers, stewards, workmen, and persons of allied "trades" in June 1886 (359 members). This syndicate is affiliated to the same union as the above. Among its objects it mentions that of "furnishing arbitrators and experts for the solution "of disputed questions between members."(11)

(3.) *Syndicat régional agricole des cantons N.E. de la Lozère, &c.,"* which was established among proprietors, farmers, and workmen in November 1887, and is also affiliated to the *Union des Syndicats agricoles de France.* "Beyond its con- "sultative function it inquires into contentious "matters brought before it by its members; and "may name three arbitrators to study them, and, "upon their report, attempts conciliation or "pronounces sentence, which is without appeal; "the person who refuses to abide by it will be "excluded from the society."

The departments in which the largest number of agricultural syndicates were to be found on July 1st, 1892, are: Côtes d'Or (38), Yonne (37), Isère (29), while those having the largest totals of enrolled members are: Charente-Inférieure (17,323), Vienne (13,256), Sarthe(12) (13,077).

"Syndicat des Agriculteurs du département de la Charente-Inférieure."

The largest of the syndicates included in these departments, and one of the most remarkable to be found in France is the *Syndicat des Agriculteurs du département de la Charente-Inférieure* at Saintes. It was founded in 1886, and has, owing to the practical character of its aims, had a rapid and brilliant development and now enrolls 12,500 members. The specified objects are:—1. Purchase of raw materials; 2. Establishment of shops and stores where the small agriculturist may find necessary provisions at the lowest price; 3. Organisation of classes and technical instruction; 4. Development of culture of the vine; 5. Use of improved instruments. It may be taken as typical of the most successful syndicates. In 1887, urged on by the growing importance of the divers claims made upon its energies, the council voted the formation of a Productive and Consumers' Society with a separate capital which should discharge the purely commercial part of the affairs of the syndicate. This was formed in September 1888, and is steadily growing in prosperity. Statistics given in M. Hautefeuille's yearbook(13) shows that the members of this society effect a saving of 25 per cent. in their purchases of ordinary objects of consumption.(14) In 1890, the governing body or council of the syndicate voted a provision for the exclusive services of a professor of agriculture; the establishment of laboratories and fields for experiments in all localities; the foundation of an orphanage which should serve as a model farm and also as a house of retirement for aged members of the association. The funds of this syndicate come from subscriptions, gifts, bequests, and special levies. The bulk of the members are small proprietors. The honorary president is M. le Marquis de Dampierre (president of the Society of Agriculturists of France), and the president is M. Guillet Theodor, general councillor at Saintes.

(iii.) Co-operative production and consumption.

(1) Almanach de la Democratie Rural. 1893. Part 2, p. 15.
(2) "La Réforme Sociale." Vol. xxiii., p. 357.
(3) F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No 258; Part 2, p. v.
(4) Cf. "L'Association Catholique." January 1893, p. .
(5) By M. Hautefeuille, Paris, 177, Rue Vaugirard, 1893. Published under the encouragement of the Minister of Agriculture. Cf., pp. 5–93.
(6) *Ib.*, Syndicat des Agriculteurers des Ardennes, p. 10.
(7) *Ib.*, Syndicat Professionnel des Vignerons Aveyron, p. 13.
(8) *Ib.*, Syndicat Libre des Agriculteurs du Périgord, Part 2, p. 28.
(9) *Ib.*, Formulaire adopté par la Société des Agriculteurs de France. Part 2, p. 5.
(10) Annuaire des Syndicats Agricoles, p. 787.
(11) Do. do. p. 240.
(12) Ann. des Synd. Prof., 1892. Tables xxxiv., and ff.
(13) pp. 164–5.
(14) Cf., also Étude Historique of M. Glotin, pp. 416–7.

Importance of co-operation for the agricultural syndicates.

The formation of co-operative societies for the profit of members of the syndicates forms a distinct stage in the agricultural movement. "One ought not to "overlook the fact that this co-operative movement "inaugurated by the initiative of the syndicates has "within it the seeds of a complete transformation of "industry, and it is not the least interesting fact "about the syndicates."(1) A vigorous campaign was carried on against the formation of the co-operative societies by the middlemen (*intermédiares, courtiers, et commissionaires*) who felt their interests at stake. The power, however, to start the co-operative societies was accorded by the circular of M. Waldeck Rousseau, dated August 25, 1884. This was interpreted and confirmed by a letter of M. Pierre le Grand, Minister of Commerce, May 27th, 1888, written in reply to complaints of Chambers of Commerce against the action of the syndicates. This administrative interpretation received further judicial sanction in a decision of the Court of Tours, March 26th, 1889. "The agricul- "tural syndicate which deals directly with the manufac- "turer with the aim of obtaining the raw materials "necessary for agriculture on the most favourable terms "for its members, does not perform an ordinary business "transaction." The aim of the interpretation throughout was to extend, as far as possible, the spirit of the law of 1884 in such a way as to allow the distinct interests and aims of the agriculturists to have free play. The middlemen did not abandon the struggle in spite of this last decision. New fighting ground was taken up and strenuous attempts were made to undersell the associations, which in some cases proved only too successful. It was reserved for the syndicates in these districts to discover a little later that in yielding to the allurements of cheapness they had capitulated to the enemy. Together with the ruin of their society they had then to face the return of excessive prices and the old abuse of adulteration.(2)

(iv.) Education by the agricultural syndicates.

Equal in importance with the co-operative services rendered by these syndicates to their members is the general education in all that concerns them as citizens. "The education of the small agriculturists is yet to be "effected . . . accustomed so long to bend before the "local authorities they hardly are aware of their power" to call public attention to general questions touching their interests. But the education has begun, and success has followed on the initiative of syndicates in exercising the right ofpetitioning against the imposition of fiscal and other burdens.(3) Complete development of the system of agricultural unions has been compared to a pyramid in form, "the lowest part represent those syndicates which "ruled only by the divers interests of their own neigh- "bourhood, determine for themselves their district and "sphere of operation. They may be according to their "circumstances communal, cantonal, or departmental. "These, according to the nature of their products "(cereals, vine pasturage, &c.) are grouped in district "Unions, which have to watch over the general "interests of that branch of agriculture . . . "These again are united in a central union placed "under the auspices of the Society of Agriculturists. "The unions which by the law of 1884 are without civil "personality (la personnalité civile) guard the moral "interests of the syndicates, record their resolutions "and desires in fiscal and economic matters, and "formulate them and bring them before the public "authorities."(4)

(v.) Development of the federal movement.

The movement towards federating and forming unions of syndicates is actually developing as rapidly as might be expected from the remarkable and practical progress of the individual syndicates. The following are those enumerated by M. Hautefeuille :—

TABLE IX.

Unions.	Department.	Date of Formation.	Syndicate.	Members.
1. Agriculturists of France	Paris	March 3, 1886	460	400,000
2. „ of the South East	Lyons	October 1888	68	40,000
3. Union of agricultural associations of the South East.	—	March 27, 1889	—	—
4. Beaujolais Union of Agricultural Syndicates.	Villefranche	May 30, 1888	4	5,000
5. Agriculturists of the South West	Toulouse	—	12	—
6. „ „ „ „	„	June 10, 1889	10	—
7. „ „ Franche-Comté	Besançon	July 8, 1889	—	—
8. „ „ Côte-d'or	Dijon	April 1888	17	200
9. „ „ Bourgogne and of Franche-Comté.	„	March 12, 1892	—	—
10. „ „ Drôme	Die	July 17, 1887	22	6,200
11. „ „ Region of Ardèche	—	—	3	3,000
12. Central Union of Agriculturists and Viticulturists.	Orleans	March 11, 1892	10	15,000
13. Agriculturists of Normandy	Caen	March 10, 1892	14	—
14. Professional viticulturists of the West	Montaigne	1892	—	—
15. Agriculturists of the North	Boulogne-sur-Mer	August 16, 1891	14	—

6. *Federations and Unions of Syndicates.*

(i.) Legal position.

Under Article V. of the law of March 21st, 1884, trade syndicates regularly constituted may freely form unions (or federations) for the study and defence of their interests. They are obliged to register the names of the syndicates of which they are composed. They have no right to hold real estate, nor have they civil personality.(5) This article was voted by the Senate by 134 votes against 127. It was held that "since (the "granting of) civil personality would disturb a large "number of minds, and it was not considered necessary "to the development of these unions," it was best to "give satisfaction to such apprehensions," and "to with- "hold from them civil personality." Thus in civil law (*dans les actes de la vie civile*) their capacity is only such as exists under Article 291 of the Penal Code, as in the case of literary, scientific, and other associations.(6)

(ii.) Classes of federations or groups of syndicates.

These unions are of three classes, like the individual syndicates of which they are composed (patronales, ouvrières, mixtes), and may be formed permanently or merely for a temporary object, *e.g.*, for a strike or for a congress. They are formed amongst State or railway employés, as freely as among other industrial workmen. So far as their capital, which is drawn from subscriptions, levies, or gifts, will permit, they can found institutions, such as libraries and museums, in the same way as the syndicates.(7)

Employers unions or federations.

The earliest attempts to form these unions were amongst employers, and the oldest of them now existing are in Paris. The *Groupe des Syndicats réunis des Commerces de Bois* was founded 1828, and includes three syndical chambers (cf. above p. 20). In the same centre is the *Association Générale du Com- "merce et de l'Industrie des Tissus et des Matières "textiles,"* founded 1848, and including six syndical chambers. The builders have also a group of 25 chambers there, established in 1859. The largest of all is a general Union of Trades, enrolling 97 chambers of all characters; its first statutes were passed by the syndicate in 1866, revised at various dates and finally brought under the law in 1889. All the remaining Unions of Employers' Syndicates (the total number being 24) are composed, in the same manner, of heterogeneous trades.

Workmen's federations.

The oldest of the Workmen's Unions or federations is the *Union Générale des Chambres syndicales*

(1) "L'Association Catholique," January 1893. pp. 11-16.
(2) "La Réforme Sociale," Vol. xxiii., pp. 356, and ff.
(3) Cf. cases quoted in "L'Association Catholique," January 1893, pp. 3-5.
(4) "La Réforme Sociale," Vol. xxiii., p. 363.
(5) Nouvelle Loi Relative à la création des Synd. Prof., M. Gudin de Pavillon, p. 37.
(6) "Étude Historique, &c." M. Glotin, p. 319. See Appendix.
(7) Cf., together with volumes just quoted articles on Professional Syndicates in Block's Dictionaire de l'Administration, and Leon Say's Dictionaire d'Économie Politique.

(*ouvrières de Bordeaux et de la région*, founded in 1872 now enrolling 28 chambers), and next is the *Union des Chambres Syndicales ouvrières de France*, 1880 (including 30 chambers). All the others, except one, have been formed since the law of 1884 was passed, and the majority in or since 1890. Several of them represent the interests of a particular trade or group of trades, *e.g.*, the *Fédération régionale corporative du Tissage*, 1891 (40 syndical chambers), at Charlieu, in the Loire department, the *Fédération Française des travailleurs du Livre*, f. 1881 (88 syndical chambers and not less than 6,000 workers), and the *Société Générale des Ouvriers Chapeliers de France*, f. 1884 (36 syndical chambers); both of these have their centre in Paris. Mr. Stephen specially mentions the *Fédération des Ouvriers et Ouvrières des Manufactures des Tabacs de France*, with its 20 syndical chambers, having its centre at the Labour Exchange of Paris.[1] No single trade is so highly organised as this, which is entirely controlled by the State in France.[2] It is, however, impossible to quote an exact official statement as to the number of non-associated employés since no reports are issued on State factories. The year-book of the Labour Exchange gives the numbers as 20,000 non-associated, 12,000 associated.

Mixed or joint unions of syndicates.

The mixed unions are only eight in number and small in size. The largest are at Saumur and Segré in the Maine-et-Loire department, and these each enroll five syndicates. All are general unions.

(iii.) Table of the three classes of federations.

The subjoined table, drawn from the details of the *Annuaire*, gives a comparative survey of the three classes of unions.

[1] F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258. pp. xiii., and 27. The other details are drawn from the Annuaire des Synd. Prof., and the Annuaire de la Bourse du Travail. Paris, 1892.

[2] Tobacco industry, conditions of, cf. infra, p. 93.

TABLE IXA. Showing Unions of Syndicates.

(N.B.—Those marked * are groups of a single trade with its branches. The other Unions are groups of many trades).

Department.	Town.	No. of Employers' Syndicates enrolled.	No. of Syndicates of Employed enrolled.	No. of Mixed or Joint enrolled.
Aisne	Aisonville-Bernoville	—	—	2
Allier	Montluçon	—	5	—
„	„	—	2	—
Alpes Maritimes	Nice	—	4	
Ardennes	Charleville	—	67	—
Bouches-du-Rhône	Aix	—	5	—
„	Marseilles	4	50	3
Charente	Châteauneuf	—	8	—
Cher	Vierzon	—	3	—
Côte-d'Or	Dijon	6	6	—
Dordogne	Sarlat	—	—	2
Doubs	Besançon	—	8	—
Gironde	Bordeaux	9	28	—
„	„	10	10	—
Hérault	Cette	—	11	—
Indre et Loire	Tours	—	11	—
Isère	Vienne	—	3	—
Loire	Charlieu	—	40*	—
„	St. Étienne	—	7*	—
„	„	—	9*	—
Loire Inférieure	Nantes	11	15	—
„	St. Nazaire	—	4	—
Loiret	Orléans	18	8	—
Lot	Cahors	—	5	—
Lot-et-Garonne	Agen	—	8	—
Maine et Loire	Cholet	—	7*	—
„	„	—	3*	—
„	Ingrandes	—	—	4
„	Saumur	—	—	5
„	Segré	—	—	5
Marne	Rheims	7	—	—
Nord	Hautmont	—	2	—
„	Lille	—	6	—
Pas de Calais	Boulogne-sur-Mer	—	6	—
„	Calais	—	5	—
Puy-de-Dôme	Clermonte-Ferrand	—	4	—
Rhône	Givors	—	4	—
„	Lyons	16	63	—
„	„	10	38	—
„	„	—	19	—
„	„	—	3	—
„	Tarrare	—	4	—
Seine	Paris	3*	30	4
„	„	6*	88*	—
„	„	25*	36*	—
„	„	94	20*	—
„	„	37	4	—
„	„	12	5	—
„	„	7	—	—
„	„	8	—	—
„	„	33	—	—
„	„	10	—	—
„	„	6	—	—
Seine Inférieure	Le Havre	8	—	—
„	Rouen	75	—	—
„	„	11	—	—
Seine-et-Marne	Melun	—	4	—
Tarn	Graulhet	—	4	—
Var	Toulon	—	9	—
Vienne	Châtellerault	—	5	—
„	Poitiers	—	2	—
„ (Haute)	Limoges	3	—	3
Totals	79 unions of industrial syndicates of all classes.	24 unions enrolling 429 syndicates.	47 unions enrolling 677 syndicates.	Eight unions enrolling 28 syndicates.

Of all these Federations or Unions that of the workers in the book trade appears in every way as the most important. It includes the following classes of workers: — Compositors, correctors, conductors, mechanics, press-printers, founders, stereotypers, binders, lithographers, *Minervistes*, stitchers, paper-makers, form setters, library employés, and others. The Federation publishes the journal *La Typographie Française*.(1)

(7.) Labour Exchanges (Bourses du Travail).

(i.) Meaning and aim of the labour exchanges.

The meaning of a labour exchange, according to the official statement of the executive committee of the *Bourse du Travail* in Paris, is that it should be the central point for union of the proletariate. Its practical aims should be "to facilitate employment of workers "by bringing together supply and demand, to establish "relations between groups of workmen, to inform "them in case of strikes, to establish syndicates, to "gather statistics as to association and the social "question, and to care generally for the emancipa-"tion of workers."(2) It is the special aim of the Paris Labour Exchange to permanently represent (while the congresses temporarily represent), and centralise all the provincial labour exchanges which have sprung up in its train. The congress of Labour Exchanges at Saint Étienne in 1892, issued a manifesto to workers in which it claimed to offer them a peculiar and independent power by which they might occupy the "fore-"most place in the struggle for the conquest of the future," and form a solid phalanx "united by common interests, cemented by solidarity," which should force the bourgeoisie, "who had made a sport of past "divisions and already counted on future divisions" in the proletarian ranks, to take their place in the approaching "inevitable social liquidation."(3)

In the same year the executive of the Paris Labour Exchange were "happy to affirm" that "every day "shows a forward movement of the labour exchanges, "true schools of sincere socialists, who are freeing them-"selves from the arbitrary despotism of the employers "(*patronat*)."(4) The leaders of the movement have not from the beginning attempted to conceal their militant spirit, though it has been more openly avowed as their power developed. They have certainly conceived a scheme for concentrating the industrial forces of the country which is potentially (*i.e.*, if the working population only choose it), the furthest reaching instrument of revolutionary socialism ever devised. In fact, one may almost say that these institutions form the central point in any treatment of the labour question in France.

(ii.) Numbers and relation to the municipalities.

Registers of the actual number of labour exchanges existing in France differ considerably. The *Annuaire des Syndicats Professionnels* for 1892, records the names and gives descriptions of 18 Labour Exchanges The *Almanach de la Co-opération Française* of the same date speaks of labour exchanges which exist in 24 towns besides Paris,(5) while the editor of the *Journal des Economistes* records that at the recent congress of Labour Exchanges held at Toulouse, there were present 23 out of 40 Labour Exchanges in France.(6) The object of this congress was to further federal organisation of syndicates, and some of its proposals were: "Constitution of a national strike fund with local "branches for every exchange; general organisation "of syndical chambers; federal constitution of similar "or allied trades; . . . obligatory formation of an "exchange in any commune where the workmen's "syndicates demand it and freedom from any control "by the government or communal administrations."(7) The last claim was strongly upheld at a meeting at the Central Exchange in 1891.(8)

As a matter of fact, the most important of the exchanges are not only municipal institutions but actually receive large annual subsidies from the municipalities. The question is therefore asked whether the ratepayers will consent to continue subsidies to institutions in no way under their control.(9) "As the socialists openly "point to the Labour Exchange as the instrument "which is to bring about the realisation of their "dreams, it is perhaps not altogether unnatural that "certain ratepayers who are easily scared, and who "have little confidence in the common sense of the "working man, should object to any portion of their "rates being avowedly applied to the furtherance of "such revolutionary projects."(10)

Attitude towards the authorities.

The attitude of the exchanges to the local and central government was touched on in the opening section. Strong protestations may be read in reports of meetings at the Labour Exchange in November and December 1891,(11) against the control exercised by the prefectoral and municipal functionaries in various undertakings of the exchange, but especially in the matter of collection of statistics illustrating the conditions of the working classes. The special contention on that occasion was that the statistics which would be produced if the authorities had their hands upon the documents of the exchange, would be "always the same lying statistics "preached by the *bourgeois* economists and scattered "abroad by all the press at the mercy of the *bourgeois* "(*messieurs les bourgeois*) in order to hide the truth "from the workers whom they betray." The general spirit of all the speakers at the meetings in question was the same, that they would have no governmental interference (*ingérence administrative*) of any kind within the exchange, and all held that it was the growing strength of the workers which led the government to offer interference. The recent conflict between the prefecture and the exchange showed a new development. In 1891 the Paris Municipality had not identified itself with the spirit of the leaders in the exchange as it now has, and as even then the Marseilles Municipality had done with the Marseilles Exchange. At that date or at least on that occasion, the leaders of the workers rather regarded the Municipality and its control as one with that of the central authorities, and the protests were directed against the interference of both equally.

(iii.) Table of the various labour exchanges.

The following table "gives a summary view in order "of date of foundation of those labour exchanges which "were notified to the authorities and registered in "the *Annuaire des Syndicats* or referred to in the "*Annuaire* of the Paris Labour Exchange: the "numbers of syndicates in the last column are (except "in the case of those noted only in the former volume), "those quoted in the latter volume":—

(1) Annuaire des Syndicats Professionnels, p. 325.
(2) Annuaire de la Bourse du Travail, 1892, preface.
(3) La Révue Socialiste. March 1892. pp. 354-5.
(4) Annuaire de la Bourse du Travail, 1892, p. 231.
(5) Almanach de la Co-opération Francaise, Paris, Imprimerie Nouvelle, 1892, p. 85.
(6) "Journal des Économistes," March 1893, p. 478.
(7) "Journal des Économistes," March 1893, p. 479.
(8) Annuaire de la Bourse du Travail, pp. 123-9.
(9) "Journal des Économistes," March 1893, p. 479.
(10) F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. xii.
(11) Annuaire de la Bourse du Travail, pp. 120-129. Cf., also F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, pp. viii.-ix.

TABLE X. Labour Exchanges.

Date of Foundation.	Town.	Constitution and Mode of Government.	Municipal Subsidies.	Institutions.	No. of Syndicates enrolled.
1887. (February).	Paris. (Seine).	Municipal institution, affairs administered solely by syndicated workmen through a general, an executive and sub-committees.	Annual subsidy, 50,000 frs.; special subsidies, 63,400 frs., 55,400 frs.	Registry offices.* Important library, weekly journal. Annuaire.	205, or 220 according to F.O. Report "four of which are women's."
1887. (March).	Nîmes. (Gard).	Municipal institution, administered by a council form of three delegates from each workmen's syndicate, a bureau and officers.	Annual, 1,160 frs.; special 49,560 frs.	Library, technical instruction, registry office, journal three times a year.	12
1888. (October).	Marseilles. (Bouches-du-Rhône).	Municipal institution, affairs administered by the council of the union of constituent workmen's syndicates of Bouches-du Rhône, and an executive committee.	Annual subsidy, 7,000 frs.; special subsidy, 28,000 frs.	Technical library and instruction; registry office; monthly journal.	70

* Registry offices are all free.

Date of Foundation.	Town.	Constitution and Mode of Government.	Municipal Subsidies.	Institutions.	No. of Syndicates enrolled.
1889. (February).	St. Étienne. (Loire).	Municipal institution, general committee controlled by municipal council. Executive committee chosen from delegates of constituent workmen's syndicates.	Annual 2,500 frs.	Library and publications; technical instruction; collection of labour statistics; registry office.	32
1889. (October).	Toulon. (Var).	Affairs administered by an executive committee chosen by the delegates of workmen's syndicates.	——	Library; Registry Office.	8
1890. (March). (June).	Bordeaux. (Gironde).	1. Controlled by the Municipality. 2. Independent, and administered by a committee named by delegates of the constituent syndicates.	1. Funds to defray expenses of building and maintenance of the same, not specified.	1. Technical instruction; Registry offices. 2. Registry Office, technical institution; monthly journal.	10 30
1890. (September).	Toulouse. (Haute Garonne).	Executive committee of ten, members elected by the majority of delegates of the constituent syndicates.	Present of a building in course of preparation.	Library; technical instruction; registry; monthly journal; collection of labour statistics.	43
1891. (February).	Lyons (Rhône).	Affairs administered by an executive council formed of single delegates from each constituent syndicate.	Present of a building worth 13,000 frs. a year.	Registry offices (separate) for men and women; monthly journal "La Travail."	66
1891. (March).	Béziers. (Hérault).	Affairs administered by an executive committee delegated by the constituent syndicates for each year.	Annual, 6,500 frs.	Night lodging for migrating labour; library; technical instruction; journal.	15
1891. (June).	Montpellier. (Hérault).	Under the control of the Municipality; general committee elected by syndicates (three delegates each) which appoints an administrative council.	Annual, 500 frs. Cost of building 1,500 frs. "Gardienage."	Registry office (conciérge—registrar—paid by the town).	10
1891. (July).	Cholet. (Maine-et-Loire).	Executive committee composed of seven members. Committee of control of three members.	——	Registry office; library.	2
1891. (November).	Tours. (Indre et Loire).	Organised by the Federation of Workmen's Syndical Chambers of the West. Administered by an elective committee which appoints its own officials.	——	Registry office; library.	12
1891. (December).	Agen. (Lot-et-Garonne).	Instituted under the auspices of the municipality; central elective committees; administrative bureau.	——	Placing of unemployed; library; technical instruction.	1
1892. (March).	Cognac. (Charente).	Represented by a council called the Federative Union, which is composed of three delegates from each syndicate. This is divided into (1) a finance and library committee; (2) an organising committee; (3) a registry and statistical committee.	——	Registry office; library; technical classes.	
1892. (March).	Angers. (Maine-et-Loire).	Governed by a committee composed of one delegate from each constituent syndicate; half the committee retire every six months.	——	——	12
1892. (April.)	Roanne. (Loire.)	Governed by a representative committee and four sub-committees.	——	Registry office.	10
1892. (June).	Cahors. (Lot.)	Governed by a representative central committee and a bureau composed of a president, two vice-presidents, a secretary and a treasurer.	——	——	6
1892.	Algiers.	Under municipal authority; affairs administered by a representative council.	——	Registry office; library.	18

Some of these labour exchanges had been so recently formed at the time of the preparation of the volumes from which the above table is drawn, that no institutions had had time to develop in connection with them. The following towns are mentioned in the *Annuaire de la Bourse du Travail* as being the centres of projected exchanges: Saint Quentin, Cette, Calais, Cours, Rhône, Nantes.

(iv.) History of the labour exchanges.

The first proposal for a labour exchange dates as far back as March 1790, when a memorandum on the subject of engagement of workers was presented to the general assembly of the representatives of the Commune of Paris by *le citoyen de Corcellet*. It was sent to the department of public works and then forgotten until February 1851, when it was brought, by M. Ducoux, without attracting attention, before the Legislative Assembly. In February 1875 the Municipal Council of Paris, on the motion of M. Delattre, adopted a resolution demanding a labour exchange, or at least of a covered place for the hiring of workmen, where employers should be provided with facilities for engaging labour and workmen freed from the heavy fees incurred in getting employment through the registry offices (bureaux de placement). From that time the idea of a municipal labour exchange spread, and in 1884, when the working classes were represented on the Municipal Council by their authorised delegates, an active propaganda was made in its favour. After many proposals made by the councillors had been discussed, a report was drawn up by M. Mesureur in the name of the Municipal Commission on Labour, November 5th, 1886, and was adopted. In February 1887 the first labour exchange was installed in an office at the rue Jean Jacques Rousseau, "and it only remained for the syndical chambers to take possession."(1) In the following August 42 syndicates had enrolled themselves, the rules of the Paris Labour Exchange were adopted, and the executive committee was appointed. The table given above shows how soon the provinces followed suit. The growth of the institution in Paris was such that it was necessary to open a new and larger central office. This was opened in May 1892, in the rue Château-d'Eau, having cost three million francs. "Certainly nothing could be better arranged than the "new building, which is fitted up with electric light "and telephonic communication, besides being well "heated. There are 160 bureaux for the use of the "syndicates, and on each floor there is a room set "aside for discussions, while the central hall has all "the appearance and is capable of serving the pur-"poses of a Labour Parliament." Besides defraying the cost of erecting this the Municipality increased its annual subsidy to 50,000 francs (2,000*l.*) and meets the expenses of firing, lighting, and "gardienage." Mr. Stephen is of opinion that complaints of abuses in application of the funds by the labour leaders are without adequate foundation, and that sufficient conscientiousness "from their point of view" is shown by the executive in the appropriation of moneys for salaries, congresses, manifestations and so on.

Growth of the institution in Paris.

(v.) Regulations, constitution, &c. of the chief exchanges. (1.) Paris.

A translation of the regulations of the Central Labour Exchange which were definitely adopted on its transference to the present quarters is given by Mr. Stephen.(2) Chapter I. deals in five articles with the outline of the constitution, which has been indicated in the table (supra page 29). Chapter II. in articles vi. to x. defines the extensive powers of the general committee which, besides controlling all administration, "has sole power "to decide on the admission or expulsion of syndicates "and corporations in accordance with the report of the "executive committee." Chapter III. deals in articles xi. to xviii. with the functions of the executive committee (elected by ballot among members of the general committee and half of whose members must be renewed every six months). It is charged with execution of the decisions of the general committee and only provisionally settles urgent questions coming before it. It keeps monthly accounts, directs the working staff of the central and dependent offices, and prepares tables of labour statistics. Its members are remunerated at the rate of one franc an hour. Chapter IV. deals in Article xix. with appointment of officers, secretaries, librarian, and assistants. Chapter V. lays down (Articles xx. to xxiii.) regulations for the conduct of the following departments: finances, archives, gazette, and inspectors. Chapter VI. provides (Article xxiv.) for a committee of control which is chosen by the general committee from among its own members, and is composed of "12 members renewable by sixths and in rotation every month." It controls all acts of the executive committee and of the responsible officers. "It shall meet in the evening for the performance of "its duties as often as may be necessary. It shall "delegate three of its members to attend the meetings "of the executive committee. Its official report shall "be issued one week prior to the meetings of the "general committee." Its members are remunerated on the same scale as the members of other committees.

(2.) Sainte Etienne.

The exchange at Saint Etienne, though not the largest, is considered by the socialists in Paris as one of the most prosperous of the exchanges, owing to the sympathetic attitude shown to it by the municipality. It has an annual budget of 12,000 francs in addition to the sum spent on maintenance of its building, &c., by the municipality. The draft of its regulations(3) shows that its constitution is simpler than that of the Paris Exchange, and without the check of the committee of control to be found there.

(3.) Bordeaux.

In the case of the Bordeaux Exchange, affairs proceeded less amicably with the municipality than at Saint Etienne, and, as may be seen in the table above, an independent exchange was quickly formed. It is not clear whether the split was primarily due to rigid enforcement on the part of the mayor of the regulations respecting registration of syndicates. The second exchange is governed by an executive committee formed by a representative delegate from each of the constituent syndicates.

(4.) Béziers.

The exchange at Béziers is one of the more forward among the smaller exchanges. Its affairs are administered by a general committee composed of two delegates from each constituent syndicate. The general committee appoints the executive committee, of which the powers last for a year. The executive committee appoints in turn its own "bureau." No account is given of the practical results of the institution peculiar to this exchange, of a night ward for migrating labourers. "It is," according to the official statement of the Paris Exchange, "one of those practical applications of com-"munity of interests" (*solidarité*), which they "would "wish to see in all industrial centres."(4)

(vi.) Actual services attempted by the labour exchange.

In addition to (1) its first practical work of replacing the services rendered by the registry offices or bureaux de placement, the work of the Central Labour Exchange is: (2) to promote the conversion of workmen to socialistic views and the establishment of international relations among workmen(5); (3) to collect statistics in support of the views held by its members(6); (4) to actively and in detail promote reforms and check abuses in connection with the relations between capitalists and workmen. Promotion by discussion or otherwise of the eight hours' day,(7) establishment of a minimum wage of one franc an hour, suppression of piece-work, the *trôle* and sweating system(8) control or suppression of work in prisons and convents,(9) and promotion of arbitration by the labour exchanges in cases of strikes or conflict between employers and employed, may be taken in illustration of this point(10); (5) to forward certain legislative schemes, *e.g.*, one for public assistance of old people and invalids among workers, with special provision for convalescent maternity homes.(11)

Free registry offices of the labour exchanges.

The provision for free engagement of workers by employers, undertaken by the labour exchanges, holds an important position in the labour movement in France. "There can be no doubt that there is some justification for the outcry" against the abuses in the hire of workmen through the authorised labour agencies or registry offices. "It is not only of the high rate of fees that complaint "is made, but of facilities afforded for malpractice by "possible collusion between such registry offices and "employers of labour." Instances have been known to occur of spurious engagement, followed by dismissal

(1) Almanach de la Co-opération Française, 1892, pp. 82-88. F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 1,258, pp. viii.-xii.
Annuaire de la Bourse du Travail, p. 211.
Annuaire des Syndicats Professionnels, p. 341.
(2) F. O. Report cited, p. 17. Appendix E.

(3) Annuaire de la Bourse du Travail. Paris, p. 218 and ff.
(4) Do. do. Paris, 1892, pp. 86-9, 403-19.
(5) Do. do. p. 224.
(6) Do. do. pp. 391, and ff.
(7) Article iv. of the regulations lays down that no employés of the syndicates or exchanges may be required to work more than eight hours a day.
(8) F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 528, p. xii.
(9) Ann. de la Bourse du Travail, pp. 41-3.
(10) Do. do. pp. 316-20.
(11) Do. do. pp. 53-64.

on a false pretext, the employer and the office sharing the fee. Another complaint is that these offices have a regular system of *racolage* or *crimping*, "that is to "say that they have agents who watch the railway "stations and frequent the streets in order to get hold "of unsophisticated workmen arriving from the country. "It is also said that employers frequently visit the "night wards (asiles de nuit) and engage starving "workmen below the current rate of wages."(1)

Special commission on registry offices.

One of the first Commissions appointed by the Higher Council of Labour was for the purpose of inquiring into the advisability of suppressing the authorised registry offices.(2) The report adopted pointed out that the labour exchanges were not, so far, sufficiently developed to replace them. It also showed that existing municipal offices presented certain inconveniences; the applications are entered in the order in which they are received without due respect to the value or capacity of the workman. The impossibility of compelling the municipalities to provide full accommodation for labour offices was also indicated. The conclusion adopted was that the State should encourage by all means at its disposal free provision by syndicates of employment, and in particular by inserting in the budget a credit to assist (through the prefects) those syndicates which achieved similar results to those obtained by the Syndical Chambers of Butchers (employers and employed) at the Labour Exchange in Paris. In 1890 they placed 3,031 workmen, with a saving in registry fees for the men of 27,279 francs.(3)

Independent municipal offices.

The independent municipal labour offices are condemned by the socialist leaders of the working men, and these latter are so far in accord with the recommendation of the Commission, although they further desire that employers may be forced to apply to the syndicates for the labour they used. Wherever the municipality closely controls the government of an Exchange, its agency would seem to be nearly the same as a municipal institution. The origin is distinct nevertheless, and the agents promoted by the syndicates, must be treated separately from those established directly by the municipality. The following are the returns in the Year-book of the Labour Exchange for 1892:—(4)

Saving effected by the Bourse du Travail.

TABLE XI.

	1890.	1891.
Registered - - -	29,274	37,142
Employed - - -	22,176	29,539
Extra hands - -	2,749	2,814

"Taking 10 francs as the average fee to registry "offices held by the . . . people whom the workers "know only too well, we affirm that the workmen of "Paris have saved 517,150 francs."(4)

Attitude of the exchanges towards conciliation and arbitration.

Important sections in the Year-book treat of the part taken by the labour exchange in mediation and arbitration between employers and employed, and in furthering the objects of the institution of councils of experts (*conseils de prud' hommes*). This is a function more developed in the Paris than the provincial labour exchanges, but a review of it belongs to another section of the Report. It is only necessary to point out here that hitherto a strongly combative spirit has pervaded most of the attempts to regulate the issues of conflicts between *patrons* and *ouvrières*. "Instead "of seeking means of reconciling the interests of "labour and capital, no opportunity was lost of urging "a strenuous resistance to the latter, and so extreme "has the language of some of them been that . . . "even liberal minded employers have hesitated to "avail themselves of the new facilities held out for "obtaining hands." The labour exchanges founded in the provinces are closely in touch with the parent and no sooner "is a dispute between master and men "announced than a delegate from headquarters appears "on the scene for the express purpose of preventing, "if possible, any conciliation save on conditions that "meet with the approval of the leaders."(5)

(1) F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. xi.
(2) Conseil Supérieur du Travail Première Session. 1891. pp. 139–150.
(3) Conseil Supérieure du Travail, 1891, p. 149.
(4) Ann. de la Bourse du Travail, 1892, p. 403.
(5) F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series. No. 258, pp. viii. and ix.

(vii.) Possible future of the labour exchange.

The control that the workmen may exercise through their exchanges on the municipalities is being even now made manifest. It was apparent from the beginning that this was a likely development, and it is in the nature of things that it should grow stronger. Two questions arise: (1) How far will it be necessary for the higher authorities (the Prefecture of the Seine, the Ministry of the Interior), to exercise a check on the pretensions of the workmen's representatives, and to assert the law? (2.) How far are the workmen themselves likely to moderate their views and learn through internal administrative experience that law and order and regard for authority are the basis of the diffused well-being which they lay down as their ultimate (not always their proximate) aim? The last question has to be considered first. Whether it be through the long operation of the Napoleonic system of local administration which, admirably simple and clear though it is, entirely inverts the English idea of local self-government, (6), or whether it be through an inherent unreadiness (racial or otherwise), to acquire self-control, or other causes, the result so far is the same that very little ground has yet been gained by French workmen in the way of self-government and respect for its forms. Anarchical utterances prevail where the most representative institutions of the workmen are found. It is possible that if the syndicates can be recruited by larger numbers of the practical workmen, and "the latter become more informed on economic questions," a transformation of these institutions may be effected. "It may be that, in the long "run the comparative independence acquired by these "syndicates, if properly understood and not abused, "may confer an incalculable benefit on the French "nation by gradually teaching a large section of the "population to govern themselves. At present, how-"ever, there is no sign whatever of any such satis-"factory issue." As to the attitude likely to be taken by the authorities in checking such disregard of the law as was expressed in Paris on June 13th(7), the press in France, and the correspondents of the English press seem to have very little doubt. "Hardly a "Republican would venture to urge it (the Govern-"vernment), to allow any further breach of legality."(8)

(8.) *Relations of associated and non-associated labourers and attitude of associations to employers.*

(i.) Freedom of labour in France.

The account of the development of strikes(9) will bring out instances of a tendency, which is perhaps growing, of interference on the part of syndicated workmen with the freedom of non-associated labour. At the same time it seems clear that this tendency has not shown itself in so marked a degree in France as in some other countries, and this is no doubt due partly to the fact that the workmen are not so highly organised as in England or the United States, partly to the stringent nature of the laws relating to violence and the general national of habit being regulated by authority in smaller details of life as well as in larger. This habit "usually "renders it easy for the Government to ensure com-"paratively fairplay at the outset when a strike "begins. Picketing is therefore usually conducted in a "less truculent form than in other countries, but when "it takes a violent shape the gendarmerie do not hesi-"tate, if necessary, to protect the men by using their "swords freely.(10) Strictures passed by the economists and independent observers on the attitude of the Government at the time of such strikes as those at Décazeville and Carmaux, however, show, that if the power is still in the hands of the authorities of repressing violence and interference with freedom of labour, they do not always avail themselves of it.(11)

Control by the authorities.

Dismissals of non-syndicated workmen.

What the syndicates have actually attempted, if they have not yet interfered greatly with freedom of labour, has been to coerce employers into dismissing unpopular workmen. Statistics of causes of strikes show a considerable number which are due either to demand for dismissal of foreign labourers or to objections to members of the staff in a factory.(12)

(6) *i.e.*, proceeding from the central authorities downwards rather than arising from local institution upwards.
(7) Cf. "Times," June 14th. "If the bourgeoisie have the audacity to send into their prisons the representatives of trade unions" (for disregard or violation of regulations affecting the same) "the latter will march out against them."
(8) *See* "Times" of same date. The note on page 9 shows that the action of the Government in temporarily closing the Exchange has been fully sustained by the verdict of the courts.
(9) *See* infra, p. 42–3.
(10) F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. xvi.
(11) *See* infra, p. 39–43.
(12) *See* infra, p. 33–4.

(ii.) Decisions of the Courts.

Certain decisions in the law courts in connection with such cases have attracted much public attention in France. The courts had decided first that a discharged workmen could not recover damages from a syndicate which secured discharge, unless threats of strikes and boycotting were accompanied by actual fraud or physical force, but this was reversed by the Court of Cassation. The test case is that of an appeal by a working printer on stuffs, named Joost, from the judgment of the civil tribunal of Bourgoin of January 11, 1890, to the Court of Grenoble, October 28, 1890. His claim was for damages against the syndicate of Jallieu, of which he had formerly been a member, on the ground that illegal pressure which led to his discharge had been brought by it to bear upon his employer. The decision of those courts was that "the acts heretofore punished by Article 416 of "the Penal Code constitute neither offences, nor "partial offences since the law of March 21, 1884, "relating to professional syndicates came into force. "Mere threats of coalition and boycotting cannot "be considered as constituting acts provided for "and punishable by Article 414 of the Penal Code. "Moral pressure brought to bear upon an em- "ployer with a view to decide him to discharge "a workman, when it takes place without violence or "fraud cannot be considered an offence. Therefore a "workman discharged by an employer who yields to "threats of boycotting from a syndicate of workmen "cannot use the fact of his having thus been dis- "charged as a ground for demanding damages from "the syndicate under Articles 1382 and 1383 of the "Civil Code."(1)

The case of Joost and the Grenoble Court, 1890.

The decision annulled by the Court of Cassation, 1892.

The decision of the Court of Cassation on June 22, 1892, was that: "Article 7 of a law "of March 21, 1884, gives every member of the syndi- "cate absolute right to withdraw from the association "whenever it seems good to him. While, since abro- "gation of Article 416 of the Penal Code, threats of "strike without violence or fraud are not actionable "(*sont licites*) when they are for the purpose of defence "of trade interests, yet they are actionable when they "exact the dismissal of a workman, because he has "withdrawn from a syndicate or refuses to enter it. "Consequently the syndicate may be liable to the dis- "missed workman when these threats take effect."(2)

Decision of the Court of Lyons, 1885.

Another interesting decision was that of the civil tribunal of Lyons on May 13th, 1885, on an action brought against a syndicate by a firm of muslin-spinners for alleged boycotting of their establishment. Fines, prohibitions, proscriptions and interdictions with a view to preparation for a strike, whether by syndicated or non-syndicated workers, were pronounced to be no longer against the law nor to be regarded as attempts to inferfere with the free exercise of industry and labour. "The boycotting of an establishment "decided by a general meeting of workmen, merely "constitutes on their part the exercise of a right, pro- "vided they cannot be charged with any allegation "likely to damage the honour or reputation of such "establishment."(3)

Decision of a Justice of the Peace, 1883.

An interesting case is quoted by M. Block, in connection with strikes,(4) of a decision by a justice of the peace at Soire-le-Chateau (Nord) in 1883. A certain workman in a swansdown factory was discharged in consequence of the closing of the establishment during a strike. He demanded and obtained an indemnity equivalent to three days' pay, on the ground that he had not joined his fellow workers in the demands which led to the strike. This was a harder case for the employer than that of the hat manufacturer at Bordeaux, who was obliged to engage new workmen to carry out some work which his regular workmen declined to do. His regular workmen presently got leave from their syndicate to undertake the task and insisted on returning to work and ousting the new hands. The manufacturer wishing to oblige his old staff, apparently, dismissed the new hands, but was condemned by the Conseil de Prud'hommes to pay 200 francs damages to each of the dismissed men.(5)

Decision of the Conseil de Prud' hommes at Bordeaux.

Decision of the Tribunal of Commerce, 1892.

The decision of the Tribunal of Commerce for the Seine, on February 4, 1892, in connection with the arbitration on the Paris omnibus strike of 1891, taken with other decisions of the courts referred to, seems to prove conclusively that the courts generally will protect the workmen and their syndicates in every possible way.(6) It was then established that "all agreements entered "into between employers and their syndicated workers "for determination of the conditions of labour, constitute "a veritable contract, for the observance of which em- "ployers may be legally held responsible and the "execution of which may, if necessary, be ordered "under compulsion."(7)

(iii.) The Bovier Lapierre Bill.

The latest proposal for adding to the trials and difficulties of employers is the Bovier-Lapierre Bill, which has been twice through the Chamber of Deputies, and which may eventually pass the Senate in a modified form.(8) As the Bill at present stands it would render it a penal offence, with imprisonment and heavy fine attached, for a master to refuse to engage a workman or to dismiss one on the ground of belonging to a syndicate.

C.—Causes of Strikes and Lockouts.

Records of the years 1889-92.

Full and detailed statistics have been collected as to causes of labour disputes in France for the years 1889-92,(9) and attention will here be mainly directed to these. But a preliminary glance at the slighter and more summary records of the years 1852 to 1889 may serve to accentuate leading characteristics of the present state of the labour question in France.

(i.) During the years 1852-89.

Out of a total of 1,813 strikes, "of which notice was "given to the authorities in the return ordered to be made "annually" (the largest number for any single year being 321 in the year 1889), by far the greater number were caused either by a demand for increase of wages or a protest against reduction of wages. Mr. Condie Stephen has given, in Appendix I. of his report, several analytical tables, drawn, apparently, from the Statistique Générale de la France, 1890, setting forth the causes under four main divisions of trades, viz., weavers, spinners, metallurgists, miners. Certain discrepancies appear on comparison of the more detailed with the summarised tables. Taking the former as correct, we find that out of 539 weavers' strikes, during the period 1852-89, 207 arose through a demand for increase of wages; 187 on account of a reduction of wages; 41 on account of sundry grievances with regard to the conditions of labour; 16 through demand for discharge of officials; 13 as protest against discharge of officials; 13 on account of fines; only seven appear to have been through demand for reduction of the hours of labour; while 13 strikes arose through the influence of other strikes; the remainder are to be attributed to a large number of miscellaneous causes, of which "bad quality of raw material" is the most prominent. Out of 157 spinners' strikes, demand for increase of wages, and protest against reduction of wages again head the list of causes, with the numbers 78 and 48 respectively; 11 arose on the question of the length of hours of labour; four arose on each of the questions (1) of discharged workmen, (2) demand for discharge of officials, and (3) grievances with regard to conditions of labour. The remainder arose through minor miscellaneous causes. Out of 109 strikes among metallurgists, 43 began with a demand for increase of wages, and 20 with protest against reduction of wages; 11 appear in the table as "demanding the discharge of foremen and workmen;" five as demanding reduction of the hours of labour; of the miscellaneous remaining causes, "employers' opposi- "tion to the formation of a syndical chamber" may be mentioned as the origin of one strike.

Out of 88 miners' strikes 46 were caused by a demand for increase of wages and only five were against reduction of wages; eight arose with a demand for discharge of officials; among the miscellaneous causes one item may be mentioned, viz., "sum retained for a benefit "aid society," two strikes arose from this cause.

During this period of 1852-89 one strike stands out as having been sufficiently prominent to be made the special subject of a Parliamentary inquiry(10) into the position of labourers, industrial and agricultural, and to have raised the question, "L'Etat doit-il intervenir." This strike was amongst the miners of the *Compagnie*

(1) F. O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. 31.
(2) Annuaire des Syndicats Professionels, pp. 411-13.
(3) Annuaire des Syndicats, &c., p. 409.
(4) Dictionnaire de l'Administration Française, Article *Grèves*.
(5) F.O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. xv.
(6) Cf. infra, Arbitration, p. 43.
(7) Annuaire des Syndicats, &c., p. 446.
(8) Cf. infra, matchmakers' strike at Pantin, p. 46, where the text of the Bill will be found.
(9) 1. Statistique générale de la France, 1890, Vols. xviii. and xix., Series No. 258.
2. Mr. Condie Stephen's Report. Foreign Office Miscellaneous Series, No. 258.
3. Also Foreign Office Miscellaneous Series, Nos. 1, 109, 148, and 169.
4. Statistique des Grèves. Office du Travail Fascicules, iii. and iv.
(10) Report (No. 2,695, Chamber of Deputies) on the strike at Anzin, by M. Clémenceau, deputy.

D'Anzin, in 1884, affected thousands of miners, and lasted two months. It began on February 21st, after the company had given the miners notice of certain modifications of the conditions of employment. These modifications are enumerated in the report of M. Clémenceau, which was the result of the inquiry:—(1) suppression of the repairers; (2) placing the work of the "putters" or "trammers" in the hands of the gangs at the seams; (3) letting out the work by contract to that one of the gangs competing which makes the lowest tender. The contention of the strikers was that these changes put burdens and responsibilities on them which could not be accepted. Besides the modification of conditions of work, Professor Renault mentions the dismissal of 144 workers as one of the causes of the strike.(1) The company supported their changes in the mode of working on the grounds of greater efficiency in results and augmented salary to the miners possessing special moral or professional qualifications.

In 1888 a "dangerous" colliers' strike, which bears some resemblance to the Carmaux strike, took place at the pits of Villeboeuf, near Saint Etienne.(2) It followed close on a smaller and successful strike at the same pits for advance of wages, and was attributed mainly to discontent fomented by socialists. It had an intimate connection with the strike for higher wages of the navvies and other employés on the Limoges and Brives Railway in the same year. Mention must not be omitted of the remarkable strike of bakers, in this same year, at St. Denis and St. Ouen, against the action of the municipality, who exercised their rights under the law of 1791 to advertise a maximum price of bread. It was considered necessary by the municipality to check a tendency shown by a syndicate of bakers to unduly raise the price of bread. One important strike for a limit of nine hours work a day is mentioned by Sir Joseph Crowe, in the above cited report, as having taken place in 1888 amongst Paris navvies.

The *Statistique Générale de la France*, Vol. xviii., shows that out of a total of 110 strikes for 1888, 31 were caused by a demand for increased wages, 48 against a diminution of wages, 31 by other causes.

The same authority(3) shows that out of 321 strikes during 1889, 161 were caused by a demand for increased wages, while 36 were against a decrease in wages. An important miners' strike at Lens, in the Pas de Calais, coming under the former head, is the subject of a report by Sir Joseph Crowe, dated October 29th, 1889. (4) The colliers struck on October 8th for higher wages, and succeeded in obtaining a rise of 10 per cent. A little later in the same month a still larger miners' strike too place at Dorignies, in the Nord Department; (5) but this was on a question of conditions of employment. The largest strike of the year, measured by number of strikers, was amongst leather dressers, and was for an increase of wages; 11,000 workmen came out (at Graulhet, in the department of the Tarn) from the 5th June to the 21st August. Thirteen minor strikes were directly caused by a demand for a reduction of the hours of labour, the largest of them being among weavers at Roanne, in the department Loire. An increased number (13) of strikes were attributed to influence of strikes in the neighbourhood.

Several strikes arose through disputes on account of Italian workmen. At Gondrecourt in the Meuse Department, 1,500 navvies came out in June with a demand for the expulsion of Italians, and in the same month 1,000 Italian railway navvies came out on strike at Joinville (Haute Marne), through a dispute with their French fellow-workmen.

(ii.) During 1890.

The fuller statistics of the *Office du Travail* are available from the year 1890,(6) and the strongly marked (socialistic) character of the workmen's movement of the year 1890 heightens their importance and value. Out of a total of 313 strikes (affecting 768 establishments and including 114,773 strikers), 140 (including 302 establishments and 48,835 strikers) come under the heading "Demand for increase of wages"; 59 strikes of smaller dimensions were caused by a direct or indirect decrease of wages; 46 strikes of large dimensions were concerned with reduction of the hours of labour. One of the largest strikes of 1890—among the miners of St. Etienne and Rive-de-Giers, affecting 9,500 men—seems to have been stimulated by the programme of the Joliment Congress. This strike began on June 5th with a demand for reinstatement of three workmen who had been dismissed, but had the ulterior objects of raising wages, reducing hours of work to eight, and reforming the relief fund. The year was in general distinguished by an unusually widespread "agitation in favour of short hours," often in the form an of eight hours' day, and a "minimum wage." The demonstration of May 1st struck the keynote of the spirit of subsequent demands of strikers. In the words of M. Jules Simon, it "was not made for the purpose of setting forth proposals to employers, it simply asked the State to intervene to the detriment of employers. . . , curtail liberty of contract, and rob not only manufacturers, but workmen of their freedom."(7) In a great many of the most important manufacturing cities workmen "took a holiday without leave," in order to join in the demonstration of May 1st. Between that date and the 8th, 70,000 men, mainly in the textile trades, were out on strike in the neighbourhood of Roubaix and Turcoing, on the Belgian frontier alone, with a demand for an eight hours day and 30 per cent. increase in wages. The Lens miners struck for an eight hours day and 20 per cent. increase in wages. Lens had had trouble earlier in the year, for 5,000 men came out without success in January with a demand for re-instatement of three syndicated workmen.(8) Most of the mining districts were in the forefront in the demands of the year. At Alais, Bessèges, Molières, and other parts in the department Gard, thousands came out with the almost universal demand for increased pay and reduced hours of work. At Saint Etienne, in the Loire, 9,500 were out through the greater part of June with demands for an eight hours' day, increase of salary, reform of the relief fund, and other changes.(9) "At Vienne, in the Isère, where there was an anarchist riot on May 1st, a strike broke out in several trades. In the weaving factories the demands of the workmen were for an increase of 25 per cent. on the old scale of wages. The dyers and masons of the same place also claimed an advance of wages and reduction of working hours."(10)

In Paris and district a strike took place among gas workers between the 2nd and 12th May, on account of a demand for an alteration in shifts, which would reduce the hours from 12 to 10, together with an increase in wages; this strike partly succeeded, in that a slight increase of wages was granted, but about 150 leaders of the movement were struck off the company's books.

Between May 6th and 28th two unsuccessful strikes took place among glassworkers at Aubervillers and Bas-Meudon, on account of dismissal in each case of a syndicated workman. Another, more noteworthy, in the same trade at Givors, in the Rhône Department, lasting from May 7th to September 11th, was caused by the demand that the workmen's syndicate should have the right of engaging and dismissing employés; in this case the strikers were eventually replaced by non-syndicated workmen.

The ferment of the early part of the summer seems to have been followed by a certain calm in the second half of the year. Strikes were much smaller and less frequent. One important strike of miners, extending to 1,800 strikers at Firminy, in Department Loire, took place in October and November; the demand was for an increase in wages, and a promise of revision of tariffs was obtained. In the case at the foundries of Revin, in the Ardennes, the same demand (made in November) was complicated by subsidiary claims and extended into the spring of the following year.(11)

(iii.) During 1891.

Out of 267 strikes registered by the authorities in 1891, 117 arose with a demand for increased wages, 45 in protest against a reduction in wages, 25 were caused by other disputes in connection with wages, and 21 were concerned with reduction of the hours of labour. A considerable proportion, 43, arose out of

(1) Histoire des Grèves, Paris, 1887.
(2) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 109, by Sir Joseph Crowe.
(3) Statistique Générale, Vol. xix.
(4) Foreign Office, Miscellaneous Series, No. 148.
(5) Statistique Générale, xix.
(6) Statistique des Grèves. Fascicule III. Office du Travail.
(7) Quoted from M. Jules Simon in Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 109.
(8) Same report.
(9) Statistique des Grèves. Fascicule III. Office du Travail, pp. 22-3.
(10) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 169.
(11) Statistique des Grèves. Fascicule III. Office du Travail.

questions as to dismissal or retention of members of the staff. Other causes were: protests against fines, which led to 11 strikes, and the refusal by employers of rights claimed by workmen's syndicates.(1)

Analysing the causes of the more important strikes of 1891, and beginning with the industries classed in France as *extractives*, we find that among the slate quarrymen of Trélazé, in Maine-et-Loire, a large number of men came out in March to April with various demands, but especially for increase of wages. A general strike of miners in Pas-de-Calais, when 33,500 men were out from November 16 to December 1, was caused by dissatisfaction with the gradation of wages, with assessments, and management of the relief and pension funds; sympathy with these strikers brought out the miners of Dorignies to the number of 1,050. A compromise was effected. A long strike on account of a revision of tariffs, resulting in reduction of wages, took place in December among the workers in foundries at Charleville. Reduction of wages caused a strike of more important dimensions early in the year at two engineering works at Haumont, in Department Nord.

Under the heading Transport, a strike, extending to over 6,000 workmen took place in mid July amongst employés of railway companies in Seine, Seine-et-Oise, and other departments. The cause was a demand for increase in wages joined to demands for reduction of the hours of work and other changes. The largest strike of dock workers was caused by a simple demand for increase of wages, and took place at Havre in September. The successful omnibus and tramways strike in May at Paris was caused by demands similar to those of the railway employés.

Turning to the division Agriculture, we find that in the late autumn a wood-cutters' strike took place in Department Cher, with a demand for increase in wages; a compromise was effected in the beginning of 1892.(2)

The largest strike of the year in the textile industries, at Sedan, March to May, was caused by demand among weavers for increase of wage. The same reason, coupled with demand for a ten hours' day, brought the spinners of Sains-du-Nord out in six factories, about the same date. Amongst glass-workers at Lyons the longest strike of the year, lasting from February 24th to October 15th, was caused by a "decision of the employers to discontinue "observance of a tariff drawn up at the close of a successful strike in 1886. . . This decision of the employers "was not caused by the rate of the tariff (*taux de "tarif*) but by the accompanying conditions."(3) The boot and shoe trade at Angers was similarly disturbed by a considerable strike in July, on account of an attempt of the employers to modify an existing tariff.(3)

(iv.) During 1892.

In the absence of any trustworthy statistics of strikes in France in 1892,(4) it seems sufficient to mention the causes of the following prominent strikes: (1) of cabdrivers and (2) of omnibus employés in January, (3) of dock porters (portefaix) at Cette in the same month, (4) of Carmaux miners, (5) of Lens miners in September, (6) of employés in the co-operative establishment *La Moissonneuse* in the Faubourg Saint-Antoine, Paris, in December.

The strike of cabdrivers was for a constant average price for the hire of cabs. The omnibus strike took place, the members of the syndicate declared, on account of a breach of faith on the part of the company.

At Cette new duties on foreign wines, to come into force in the following month, occasioned an extraordinary press of work. The porters seized the moment to refuse to unload without a considerable rise in wages which would have brought them in 30 francs for a day of ten hours. The employers refused to consider the demands, and some disturbances followed.(5)

The great strike among miners at Carmaux was begun, the miners declared, in vindication of the principle of manhood suffrage, which they alleged had been tampered with, in the dismissal from the mines of the Mayor Calvignac almost immediately after his election. The causes of the strike are, however, extremely complex, and are fully dealt with in the account of the development of the strike.(6)

The strike at Lens about the same time was caused by the employment of Belgian workmen, who were accused of underbidding the native miners. The Belgians nearly all departed voluntarily.(7)

In the same month a partial stoppage of work took place amongst hairdressers' assistants in Paris, with a demand for early closing, *i.e.*, at 8 p.m., in the centre and 9 p.m. in the suburbs. The dispute was amicably arranged by conference with the masters.(8)

The strike amongst co-operative employés of *La Moissonneuse* in December 1892, was occasioned by a refusal of the administrative council to allow the formation of a syndicate. Out of 150 employés 60 were dismissed for attempting to form one. As the members (numbering 12,000) of the society were all workmen of the Faubourg Saint-Antoine, "who probably were themselves members of syndicates," their attitude to their employés seemed inconsistent.(9)

(v.) During 1893. The law regulating labour of women and children in January 1893.

One of the most prominent causes of strikes in 1893 appears to be the law regulating the labour of women and children. Different authorities give the same conclusion, namely, that it has created great discontent among the working classes.(10) "Since the new law "changed the time for different classes of female hands, "the masters have been forced to alter their arrangements. They have mostly done so by reducing "hours. But they have also attempted to reduce the "wages proportionately. They have dismissed as many "as they could of the females under 18. They have "claimed to dock the wages in proportion to the reduction of time, and they have manipulated the periods of "rest so as to bring out a profit for themselves. All "this has necessarily led to strikes and quarrels."(11)

At Lille in the textile factories, where men and women were employed side by side, the employers decided to reduce the hours for both to eleven and cut off an hour's pay. Men and women struck for the old pay. "The masters yielded, and gave the old pay for "twelve hours on the understanding that the hands "should stand by the frames without any interruption "during the whole time of the machinery being in "motion. For every breach of the rule the hands "were reduced to the wages of eleven hours."(11)

At Séclin the new arrangement of hours left too short a time for meals, and three factories were deserted by the hands who came out on strike.

At Rheims some of the masters granted longer meal hours, but attempted stoppages out of wages for establishment of refectories. A strike ensued.

At Saint Chamond and other places in the neighbourhood strikes took place for maintenance of the existing rate of wage.

At Marseilles, the women spinners and weavers in the Bouley factory came out on strike for maintenance of the wage 2 francs 50, in spite of the reduction of hours to eleven.(12)

At Privas a strike took place among women throwsters for a similar purpose. An arrangement was made that the day should be reduced to ten hours, the rest to two hours ten minutes instead of three hours, and the wages to remain at 1 franc 25 centimes.

In the Paris sugar factories a strike took place among the women sugar cutters, because several masters dismissed girls under 18 in order to keep up the eleven hours' system.(13)

No trustworthy general statistics as to strikes in 1893 are available. Such accounts as have appeared seem

(1) Statistique des Grèves. Fascicule III., Office du Travail.
(2) Statistique des Grèves, pp. 76-7, 100-1.
(3) Statistique des Grèves, pp. 82-3.
(4) The statistics of the Office du Travail were received just as these sections were going to press and are therefore taken account of in the Appendix. *See* infra, p. 134-7.—G. D., 30/9/93.
(5) "La Réforme Sociale," Jan. 16, 1893.
(6) *See* below, p. 39-42.
(7) "La Réforme Sociale," Sept. 16, 1893.
(8) *Ib.*
(9) "La Revue d'Economie Politique," Jan. 1893.
(10) Despatch to the Foreign Office of Sir Joseph Crowe, dated Paris, Jan. 11th, 1893. "La Réforme Sociale," Jan. 16, 1893.
(11) Despatch quoted above (cf. infra, p. 53).
(12) "La Réforme Sociale," Jan. 16, 1893, p. 165.
(13) Despatch quoted above.
The difficulties caused by the law are of three kinds:—1. Demand of men workers to share in the reduced hours of fellow women workers. 2. Resistance of a reduction of wages equivalent to the reduction of hours. 3. Difficulties connected with the regulations as to leaving and entering the works. The first has been rare, the second the most frequent cause of strikes; a strike took place early in the year at the Usines Marrell, in Rive de Gier. Through the third cause. The article of Mr. Hubert-Valleroux in "La Réforme Sociale," September 1, on the strikes at Amiens should be consulted by those desirous of further information.—G. D., 30/9/93.

to show that the majority of strikes have been caused by questions affecting wages. In April a large strike took place at Flixecourt, in the Somme Department to protest against a new tariff and the dismissal of an employé; 5,000 weavers came out. An important strike took place at Amiens for an increase of wages, in which 1,500 dyers and finishers were involved; this ended in a compromise. At Houplines 800 weavers struck, partly on account of inferior materials, partly to secure higher wages, and the dismissal of a foreman. In May the strikes in the textile trades were less important. Eight hundred silk weavers came out at La Patinère, in the Isère Department, for a new price list, which they obtained. At Suresnes, in the Seine Department, 620 dyers came out with a demand for increased wages, with reduced hours of labour, and after 11 days a compromise was effected.

The building trades in the two months mentioned have had considerable strikes. At Lyons, in April, 1,500 painters and plasterers struck for the adoption of a new tariff. At Bordeaux, on May 2nd, 1,800 workers came out with a demand for fortnightly instead of monthly payments. They resumed work on June 2nd, after obtaining an increase of wages from 1 franc to 1½ francs a day.

The only strikes of any significance amongst miners in the same months were: (1) at Chaligny, of 300 miners to obtain the dismissal of an Italian workman, and (2) at St. Etienne, of 270 miners, on account of the transfer of a manager.

The comb makers at Oyannax in the Ain department struck against a proposed reduction of wages in May. They numbered 2,000, and belonged to 190 different establishments. At the end of three days they returned to work, having obtained an increase in wages and a reduction of working hours.(1)

D.—Development, Organisation and Conduct of Strikes.

1. *Distribution among Departments and Trades.*

Distribution by departments.

The following Tables, XII. A., B., C., have been drawn from the Statistique Générale and the Statistique des Grèves, and combine in one view the details for 1890 and 1891, and for 1888 and 1889, which are given separately by the authorities. The statistics for the period 1852 to 1889 are presented as given in the former work (1889) and as repeated in Mr. Stephen's Report.

Departments where most strikes occur.

It will be seen that, taking the average over the whole period, the departments most troubled with strikes are the Nord, Rhône, Loire, Pas-de-Calais, Seine, and Ardennes Departments. If the estimate is for the separate period of years 1890 and 1891, the Seine might be dropped out of this list, for 1889 and 1890 the Ardennes might be omitted, and for 1852 to 1889 the Departments Marne and Vosges might be substituted for the Ardennes and Pas-de-Calais.

Table XII.—A.

Strikes in 1890 and 1891.

Department.	Number of Strikes. 1890.	1891.
Ain	4	2
Aisne	12	7
Allier	3	2
Alpes (Basses)	—	—
Alpes (Hautes)	—	—
Alpes-Maritimes	—	1
Ardèche	5	5
Ardennes	16	28
Ariège	—	—
Aube	3	3
Aude	—	1
Aveyron	2	1
Bouches-du-Rhône	9	6
Calvados	—	2
Cantal	—	—
Charente	2	5
Charente-Inférieure	1	1
Cher	2	1
Corrèze	—	—
Corse	—	—
Côte-d'or	1	1
Côtes-du-Nord	—	—
Creuse	1	—
Dordogne	—	3
Doubs	—	—
Drôme	—	—
Eure	1	—
Eure-et-Loir	—	—
Finistère	—	—
Gard	6	1
Garonne (Haute)	4	3
Gers	1	—
Gironde	6	7
Hérault	6	3
Ille-et-Vilaine	2	9
Indre	2	1
Indre-et-Loire	—	1
Isère	8	2
Jura	—	—
Landes	—	—
Loir-et-Cher	—	—
Loire	29	11
Loire (Haute)	6	2
Loire-Inférieure	5	1
Loiret	—	3
Lot	—	—
Lot-et-Garonne	—	1
Lozére	—	—
Maine-et-Loire	6	7
Manche	—	1
Marne	12	9
Marne (Haute)	—	—
Mayenne	1	—
Meurthe-et-Moselle	2	1
Meuse	2	—
Morbihan	1	1
Nièvre	2	3
Nord	61	68
Oise	1	1
Orne	1	2
Pas-de-Calais	11	6
Puy-de-Dôme	2	1
Pyrénées (Basses)	—	1
Pyrénées (Hautes)	—	—
Pyrénées-Orientales	—	—
Territoire de Belfort	2	—
Rhône	28	20
Saône (Haute)	4	2
Saône-et-Loire	5	1
Sarthe	1	—
Savoie	—	—
Savoie (Haute)	—	1
Seine	8	13
Seine-Inférieure	8	9
Seine-et-Marne	1	1
Seine-et-Oise	2	3
Sèvres (Deux)	—	—
Somme	4	1
Tarn	1	4
Tarn-et-Garonne	4	—
Var	1	—
Vaucluse	3	—
Vendée	—	—
Vienne	—	—
Vienne (Haute)	—	1
Vosges	6	4
Yonne	—	1
Total	314 (in 52 Departments).	276 (in 54 Departments).

(1) *See* "Labour Gazette," June, July.
On August 18 intelligence was received (cf. "Times" of that date) of the occurrence of serious labour riots in Aigues-Mortes on the littoral of the Mediterranean. The cause was a dispute between French and Italian workmen.

TABLE XII.—B.

STRIKES IN 1888 AND 1889.

Department.	Number of Strikes. 1888.	1889.
Ain	1	—
Aisne	3	14
Alpes (Basses)	—	1
Ardèche	—	1
Ardennes	7	3
Aube	2	3
Bouches-du-Rhône	1	4
Calvados	2	2
Charente-Inférieure	—	1
Corrèze	1	—
Corse	—	2
Doubs	1	1
Eure	1	2
Gard	1	4
Garonne (Haute)	—	1
Gironde	1	4
Ille-et-Vilaine	2	9
Indre	—	3
Isère	3	3
Jura	3	2
Loire	4	43
Loire-Inférieure	2	4
Lot	—	1
Maine-et-Loire	1	3
Marne	2	1
Marne (Haute)	—	1
Meurthe-et-Moselle	2	—
Meuse	1	2
Nord	25	80
Oise	1	2
Orne	3	1
Pas-de-Calais	2	15
Territoire de Belfort	—	2
Rhône	8	63
Saône (Haute)	1	1
Saône-et-Loire	1	1
Savoie	—	1
Savoie (Haute)	3	—
Seine	9	11
Seine-Inférieure	3	—
Seine-et-Oise	1	—
Sèvres (Deux)	1	—
Somme	6	5
Tarn	—	10
Var	—	5
Vaucluse	—	2
Vienne (Haute)	1	—
Vosges	2	7
Algiers	2	—
Total	110 (in 36 Departments).	321 (in 40 Departments).

TABLE XII.—C.

NUMBER OF STRIKES FROM 1852 TO 1889.

Department.	Strike.	Department.	Strike.
Ain	2	Lot-et-Garonne	3
Aisne	51	Maine-et-Loire	18
Allier	5	Manche	7
Alpes (Basses)	2	Marne	56
Alpes-Maritimes	7	Marne (Haute)	7
Ardèche	14	Mayenne	2
Ardennes	42	Meurthe-et-Moselle	5
Ariège	2	Meuse	12
Aube	15	Morbihan	1
Aude	6	Nièvre	17
Aveyron	19	Nord	405
Bouches-du-Rhône	41	Oise	14
Calvados	11	Orne	3
Charente-Inférieure	3	Pas-de-Calais	53
Cher	19	Puy-de-Dôme	3
Corrèze	2	Pyrénées (Basses)	4
Corse	4	Pyrénées-Orientales	2
Côte-d'or	3	Territoire de Belfort.	16
Côtes-du-Nord	1	Rhône	156
Creuse	4	Saône (Haute)	4
Doubs	9	Saône-et-Loire	11
Drôme	5	Sarthe	17
Eure	7	Savoie	4
Eure-et-Loir	1	Savoie (Haute)	1
Finistère	4	Seine	156
Gard	22	Seine-Inférieure	54
Garonne (Haute)	8	Seine-et-Marne	3
Gironde	43	Seine-et-Oise	8
Hérault	14	Sèvres (Deux)	1
Ille-et-Vilaine	20	Somme	54
Indre	3	Tarn	24
Indre-et-Loire	34	Tarn-et-Garonne	1
Isère	54	Var	6
Jura	3	Vaucluse	5
Landes	1	Vendée	2
Loir-et-Cher	7	Vienne (Haute)	10
Loire	84	Vosges	56
Loire (Haute)	4	Yonne	4
Loire-Inférieure	38		
Loiret	3	Total	1,825
Lot	3		

Distribution by trades.

For the years 1890 and 1891 comparison can be very completely made of the distribution of strikes among the important groups of industries. The result is as follows:—

TABLE XIII.(1)—A.

Industries.	1890.	1891.
Mining and quarrying	39	22
"Metallurgy" (engineering)(3)	8	4
Manufactured iron and steel (blast furnaces, hardware, cutlery, &c.).	33	34
Transport (docks, shipping and road transport).	9	11
Railway workers	—	1(2)
Agriculture and forests	5	6
Commerce	—	1
Textiles (spinners, weavers, &c.)	118	104
Clothing and allied trades	12	18
Printing trades	4	—
Chemical and gas works	7	1
Ceramics and glass works	28	14
Building and construction	27	26
Leather and allied trades	6	5
Papermaking	2	1
Cabinet and allied trades	9	17
Provision making trades	6	2
Totals	313	267

(1) Statistique des Grèves.
(2) Affected six lines and 6,059 workers.
(3) *See* note (2) on page 20.

The figures for 1888 and 1889 are as follows:—

TABLE XIII.—B.

Industries.	1888.	1889.
Mining, quarrying, &c.	4	16
Engineering, foundries, hardware, &c.	12	18
Transport	1	5
Commerce	—	2
Textiles and dyeing	55	195
Clothing and allied trades	11	23
Printing	3	3
Chemicals	1	1
Ceramics and glass works	4	6
Building and construction	12	18
Leather	—	7
Paper	1	—
Cabinet making	1	13
Provision making	—	9
Totals	110	321

2. *Important Individual Strikes.*

(*a.*) Mining.

(i.) Strike of colliers at Anzin, 1884.

The strike of miners at Anzin in 1884 is the first of the great strikes that must be taken account of under this head. As indicated in the previous section (p. 33), it was one of the most important that has ever arisen in France. An interesting table of the whole series occurring there since 1846 is presented in the report from which the account is mainly gathered[1] as follows :—

TABLE XIV.

Order and causes of previous strikes.

Date.	Duration.	Causes.	Results.
1846	Ten days. July 7th to 17th.	Demand for increase in wages.	Wages for day's work of miner of the 1st class raised from 2 fr. to 2 fr. 30 c.
1848	Seven days. March 3rd to 10th.	Demand for substitution of horses for men on the underground roads.	Employment of horses having been suspended for some months it was resumed, and compensation given by raising wages to 2 fr. 50 c.
1855	Three days, February 9th to 11th.	Demand for increase in wages.	No satisfaction given to workmen. Next year a rise took place from 2 fr. 50 c. to 2 fr. 70 c.
1864	September -	——	Attempt without results. One hundred workmen went out, but returned next day.
1866	Six days. October 23rd to 29th.	Demands: 1. Suppression of contract and raising of wage to 4 fr. a day; 2. Freedom to commence work at optional hours (*Remonte des travaux à des heures facultatives*); 3. Formation at Denain of a co-operative society.	Return to work without satisfaction of demands. It is noteworthy that wages had risen to 3 fr. on the 22nd October.
1872	July - -	Demand for increased wage.	Rise from 3 fr. to 3 fr. 25 c.
1878	Twelve days. July 16th to 28th.	Lowering of price for task work and contract work.	No satisfaction to the workmen.
1879	May 5th to 6th.	Uncertain - -	15 workmen arrested.
1880	Fifteen days. October 23rd to November 7th.	The same as in 1878 -	No satisfaction to the workmen.
1884	Fifty-six days. February 21st to April 17th.	Against changes in conditions of work, viz. :— 1. Suppression of repairers. 2. Placing work of trammers in charge of gangs at the seams. 3. Letting work out by contract to that one of the gangs competing which made the lowest offer.	Work resumed on the company's conditions.

Position of the company, 1884.

It was in the middle of the month of February that the Company of Anzin[2] announced the changes in conditions of work, the chief of which from the miners' point of view was the suppression of certain distinct kinds of workers (involving discharge of 144 men). Early in 1883 the company had found some such changes necessary in their management of the mines, since competition both with French and foreign mines put them at a disadvantage unless they could adopt less expensive and antiquated methods than they had hitherto employed. "The work in the mine involves "three operations . . . . . (1) extraction, is the "work of the miners; (2) conveyance or transport of "the coal on trollies, which is the work of the tram- "mers (*herscheurs*); (3) charge of the vaults and "walls of the galleries, which is in care of the repairers "and boy workers (*raccommodeurs et galibots*). Only "the miners produced a direct profit to the under- "taking."[3] The company found that they employed too many accessory workmen and determined to adopt the system prevailing in other undertakings, *e.g.*, at l'Escarpeile.

Numbers involved in the strike.

A few days after the changed order was announced the strike began and extended by degrees from pit to pit.

On February	21st,	7,623 workmen came out.
,,	22nd,	4,625 ,,
,,	23rd,	2,112 ,,
,,	24th,	799 ,,
On March	22nd,	1,300 ,,
On April	4th,	2,659 ,,
,,	7th,	1,720 ,,
,,	12th,	2,835 ,,
,,	17th,	6,135 ,,

At this point the strike terminated.

Meetings and attempts at arrangement.

Before the strike begun the miners' syndical union held meetings and communicated by letter (February 20th) with the deputies and authorities of the Department asking that the Government should intervene. On the day after the strike began, a delegate body of miners obtained an interview with the director of the company, but without any result. Next day (February 23rd) the same delegates had an interview with the prefect and sub-prefect of Valenciennes, and the former undertook to see the director with the view of arranging for a conciliation. He explained the demands, which were that they should "return to the "former conditions of work and that the discharged "workers should be reinstated." On the same day the director, M. Guary, informed the prefect that the company could not reconsider their decisions. The miners then passed a resolution that they would hold in reserve a call upon all other colliery workers in France to declare a strike. On the 24th the miners offered through the sub-prefecture to accept the conditions with the following modifications :—"(*a*) that the fixed "charge per metre for maintenance of the galleries "should be increased by 50 per cent. for each metre "beyond 100; (*b*) that the responsibilities in case of "accidents should not differ from those of the repairers "(*raccommodeurs*)."

Attitude of the company.

On the 25th the company replied, that they could not reconsider their decisions with respect to the maintenance of the galleries, that the miners need fear no increase of responsibilities or decrease of wages and that, without exception, the repairers, whose services were dispensed with, would receive for six months a sum of 45 francs a month, and that those who had claims on the company should receive pensions. No understanding was arrived at and many futile meetings were held. On the 28th February a question was asked in the Chamber on the subject of the strike at Anzin.

Intervention of the Government.

But it was not until March 15th that the Minister of the Interior announced that he had sent to Denain (the point at which the strike began) the Director-General of Mines, the President of the General Council of Mines, and the Inspector-General, for the purpose of making an inquiry into the circumstances of the strike.

These representatives of the Government held meetings with the delegates of the miners "on the "subject of the re-engagement of the discharged "workmen and all their other claims. In the words "of their own report the mission of this committee of "of three was 'esentially conciliatory,' to listen to the "miners, to discuss affairs with them and to explain to "them that their interests were certainly at one with "the modifications which the company had the right "to introduce in the conditions of work."[4] On the 17th the prefect was informed of a resolution on the part of the miners to continue the strike "energetically" without any abatement of the first claims. Meanwhile attempts had not been wanting to extend the strike in other directions; on March 12th, for instance, the delegates, and especially M. Basly, deputy, had advised a strike on the part of the machinists for increased wage; they, however, refused to join in the strike.

On the 15th the company publicly affixed a notice that to prevent further misunderstanding, they declared that the responsibilities of the miners would be no greater than those of the repairers.

Repeated demands of the miners.

On the 31st another visit of the delegates to the director took place without result. On the 7th of April the miners not only repeated their first demand for return to the old conditions of work and the re-engagement of workers, but also demanded the release

(1) No. 2,695. Chambre des Deputés. Imprimerie Quantin. Paris, 1885, p. 37.

(2) Which is a union of seven concessions, and is a *Société civile* under very old statutes. *See* Fourth Report of Commission on Mining Royalties, Questions 19,410-19,436.

(3) Renault. Histoire des Grèves, p. 143.

(4) Report No. 2,695, 1885, Chambre des Deputés. p. 119.

of their imprisoned comrades who had been apprehended "on the false reports of the gendarmes" and the payment of the expenses they had incurred through the strike. The arrests had been made on the 4th after serious disturbances. During the strike there had been several isolated acts of violence and use of explosives. By the 8th, military forces were stationed at all the pits. On the 14th, an "honourable capitulation" was invited, and by the 17th the strike was at an end with no results beyond maintenance of the terms of the company and the pecuniary loss of the stoppage of work to both sides.

The following opinion on the attitude of the company was expressed by the Commission (from whose report the narrative is mainly drawn). "The representative " of the mining companies instead of seeing in the " constitution of the syndicates a practical means of " arriving at an understanding, have incessantly com- " bated the syndical associations. They have thus " aggravated the sentiments of hostility already " existing, and seriously failed to recognise their " proper interests." M. Renault wrote(1) that "un- " happily political motives were the soul of the resist- " ance shown by the workmen." As for the company the only accusation against it that could be sustained was on the score of shortness of notice of changes. The application of the new mode was inevitable. The workmen misunderstood the notices of the company largely through incapacity to read.

(ii.) Strike at Décazeville, 1886.

Few strikes have, anywhere, arisen so suddenly, and at the same time lasted so long, as the strike of miners at Décazeville, which began on January 26th, 1886, and continued, or rather broke out afresh, and was renewed for nearly five months. According to some accounts, the workmen rose against a threatened decrease in wage and the harsh and irritating conduct of two civil engineers in charge of the operations. According to others, "the real cause lay in the irritation " felt by local shopkeepers against the co-operative " society, towards the development of which the two " engineers, already incriminated, had greatly con- " tributed."(2)

On these various heads the following facts are stated: first, that the managers proposed no decrease of wages; this was expressly stated by the president and council of administration; secondly, every account of the one of the engineers, who died in consequence of injuries inflicted by the miners, gives a direct contradiction to the charge brought against him by them. His fellow members in the society of civil engineers declared him to be "stern to no one but himself, and particularly devoted to the workmen." It may be that details concerned with sub-contract in the interior of the mines which rested between the master miners and the workmen caused feelings of irritation which were worked off upon the higher authorities(3); thirdly, the saving to the miners effected by the co-operative society was undoubted and its affairs were managed by the employés of the company. One cause of irritation in this connection, however, existed in a retention of part of the wages by the company up to the amount due by the workmen to the co-operative society. This control was discontinued during the strike conferences.

The order of events in the strike was as follows. The commencement was marked by a violent assault on the civil engineer referred to, M. Watrin, who died the same night. The secretary of the General Federation of Miners alleged that this strike was the result of an order (upon a resolution) of the Saint Etienne Congress. The mayor prevented any intervention of the *gendarmerie*, and work was resumed on the following day with certain modifications, viz.: that wages were to be paid fortnightly, and fixed prices were not to be altered within the fortnight; that the wood stores should be brought nearer to the mines. On the other hand, the miners expressly renounced any claim to increased wage or decrease in hours. The sudden calm was only on the surface. "Disturbing causes of a political " order were not wanting among the men." On February 11th, an interpellation of M. Basly, "drew upon " him two calls to order, and brought the Minister of " Public Works, of the Interior, and of Foreign Affairs " to the Tribune." On the 15th, three miners were condemned by the magistrates (tribunal correctionel) of Villefranche to imprisonment (2 months, 20 days, 5 days, respectively) for interference with freedom of labour. Gradually excitement grew and one month exactly after the terrible outbreak which began the strike, a general strike was proclaimed. Claims were made for increase in rates of wages after interviews with the local authorities and the chief engineer. Advice and help were sent to the strikers during March by the Municipal Council of Paris. At the same time an order from the Government was imposed upon its local representatives (the prefect and sub-prefect) forbidding them to take part in negotiations, while the Government itself undertook to preserve order. The company were now reduced to communicating their terms by means of printed notices. The main further events of March, were: (1.) Meetings called by M. Basly at Firmy, and Mlle. Louise Michel at Versailles, neither being very successful. (2.) Consultations and addresses of ministers and "seven other orators"(4). (3.) Attempts on the part of the miners to obstruct the mines still being worked. The month closed with an extension of the strike to Firmy and to all the forges, furnaces and workshops of the locality. At Firmy the ostensible cause was a demand for an increase in wages of "one centime." The strength of the influence of the political agitators had grown to such proportions that in April, some of them (MM. Duc Quercy and Roche) were arrested. The chief aim seemed to be the ruin of the company. These arrests were followed by sentences of 15 months' imprisonment. In spite of pecuniary help from many quarters the sufferings of the miners and their families were by this time very serious, and on May 4th, the first serious attempt at mediation and conciliation was made by M. Rèmes, a disinterested outsider, unconnected with mines or politics. His attempts proved fruitless, and the company announced their intention of importing outside labour. The miners then proposed (May 10th) an arbitration committee to be composed of three deputies of their own choice, two members of the governing body, and two miners. The company naturally refused. On the 11th an arbitration offered by M. Laur, failed because the company refused to consider any other matter than "verification of the equivalence of the tariffs of Febru- " ary 26th with previous tariffs." On the 19th, conflicts took place between the metal workers and miners, and explosions and incendiarism were reported from various quarters of the strike on May 22nd and 25th, and June 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 10th. At this point fresh representations were made on the one hand by M. Laur to the miners, and on the other by the Government, who offered three arbitrators to decide on the point mentioned by the company. The result was that by the 12th, the company had offered an increase of 1*d.* (ten centimes) on each coal skip and peace was signed. "M. Basly " contributed to this happy result by hastening as soon " as he knew of the generous intentions of the company, " to exercise the great influence he had over the work- " men in counselling them to agree to peace and " resumption of work." (5)

The differences between the conflicting parties finally resolved themselves into such inconsiderable dimensions that it may almost safely be said that without revolutionary agitation on the one hand and with some convenient means of communication on the other, these disastrous events might have been averted.(6)

(iii.) Colliers' strike at St. Etienne, 1888.

As in the strikes at Anzin and Décazeville, M. Basly played an important part in the strike of colliers at St. Etienne, which began in August 1888, but his action was of a new conciliatory character. The colliers struck for an advance of wages, and on a promise of 25 centimes increase a day, with additional contribution to the relief fund, returned at once to work. "But a " spirit of discontent soon afterwards got abroad, " encouraged by the action of the men at the works " of the Limoges and Brives Railway, and about Sep- " tember 5th the miners in three pits of the company " of the Loire left work without notice, and by per- " suasion or intimidation speedily effected a partial " strike at all the collieries of the district. An imposing " display of force was required on the part of the autho- " rities to repress a dangerous repetition of excesses. " The men, however, were soon divided amongst them- " selves. They were baulked in their attempt to visit " the pits in large bodies, they kept their chief demand " for an advance of wages in the background, and they

(1) In his history of strikes above cited (p. 150), a work that gained the prize of the Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques.
(2) Histoire des Grèves, p. 221-5.
(3) Cf. infra, Lens strike, 1889, p. 40.
(4) Histoire des Grèves, p. 232.
(5) *Ib.*, p. 239.
(6) *Ib.*, p. 239.

" merely contended that the relief funds required new " regulating, that fines[1] ought to be suppressed and " tasks and contracts be disallowed."[2] The men also complained of the system by which a head miner acts the part of superintendent and distributes the wages; it was alleged that under this system 40 per cent. of the wages was intercepted. " On this and other points " the masters showed themselves not unwilling to make " concessions." M. Basly predicted the failure of the strike to its leaders, pointing out (1) that two-thirds of the colliers were not in its favour; (2) that the price then ruling for coal in central France made it vain to hope for an increase of wages; (3) that the experience of the syndicate at Rive de Giers showed that the miners could not themselves work a mine with profit. " The " socialists, who were, it seems, movers of the strike, " met and passed resolutions declaring M. Basly to be " a traitor." The strike broke down completely about October 6th.

(iv.) Strike at Lens, 1889.

On October 8th, 1889, 2,742 colliers out of a total 5,700 came out in the pits of the Lens Company (Pas de Calais) for an increase of wages, and succeeded in obtaining 10 per cent. There was "reason to believe " that in some parts of the coal country higher rates" prevailed than at Lens, where the average daily pay was about 4 francs 25c.[3] The demand for a scale of 5 francs 50c., 4 francs, and 3 francs 50c. for the different underground colliers had added to it claims for abolition of compulsory overtime, exemption from fines for non-attendance, and the privilege of residence in the company's miners' dwellings for the widows of deceased colliers. The company at once offered to concede the minor points, to reduce fines, to make overtime optional and payable at an increased rate; but they would only promise to pay the highest wages prevailing in any part of the Pas de Calais. " At Carrières, where, meanwhile, " the strike had also broken out, the coalowners offered " an advance of 7 per cent., and this gave an additional " impulse to the movement, which went on extending " as the men showed less and less inclination to listen " to the offers of the masters. . . . On October 14th " there were 5,700 miners out, and these numbers " gradually increased on the 19th to 15,000 men belong- " ing to 25 pits in the coal fields of the Nord and the " Pas de Calais Departments. On October 20th, the " Lens Company and the representatives of 14 other " companies, including Aniche and Anzin, met at Douai, " and passed a resolution granting an advance of wages " of 10 per cent." The cost of this advance was estimated at an annual sum of seven million francs (280,000*l.*). The men in the Pas de Calais generally resumed work on these terms, although at a few places some held out for an advance of 20 per cent. The results in these cases were negative.[4]

(v.) General miners' strike in May 1890.

The Saint Etienne Miners' Congress, 1890, and the demonstrations of May 1st immediately succeeding it, were followed by serious strikes and disturbances. The resolutions carried out at that congress were " of the most radical kind ": (1.) Reduction of the working day to eight hours. (2.) Unification of wages in all collieries on the following scale:—

Overground hands - -	5 francs.
Underground ,, - - -	6 ,,
Timberers in the ways - -	7 ,,
Hewers - - - -	8 ,,

(3.) That unless these demands were conceded a general strike should be proclaimed. At Saint Etienne, Décazeville, and throughout the Aveyron Department the men left their work for two days, and then returned on the old terms; " but in the Gard and Ardèche the colliers " of the fields of Bessèges and Alais went on strike for " the Saint Etienne tariff to the number of 5,500 men," and the collieries of Bessèges, Molières, and the neighbourhood remained empty until the end of the month.

The demands meant an increase of about 25 per cent. to the wages paid at a time when collieries were " notoriously not prosperous." The masters of Bessèges and Alais calculated that the price of coal per ton would rise from 2*s.* 5*d.* to 3*s.* 2*d.* a ton, and " that these prices would necessarily curtail the output." They declared that concession to the men meant ruin to themselves, and that under no circumstances did they see their way " to reduce the shifts so as to include time in and time " out within eight hours." " The mining population " of the northern colliery districts of France left their " work in large numbers on May 1st, but the only " strike of importance which subsequently broke out " was that of the Lens miners, who asked for the eight " hours day and an increase of 20 per cent. of wages." The masters refused to listen to terms, troops were called in to repress disturbances, and the colliers mostly returned to work before the end of May. In a few of the cases, *e.g.*, at Alais and Chamborigaud, slight concessions were made by the masters. At Alais the company agreed to fortnightly payment of wages and free provision of tools.[5]

(vi.) General miners' strike in November 1891.

In 1891 an important general strike amongst miners in the Pas de Calais and Nord Departments lasted throughout November, and was brought to an end by an arbitration at Marles which arranged for a compromise.[6] At Marles (Pas de Calais) 3,000 men came out from October 23rd to December 1st, and this led to a general strike of 33,500 men from November 16th to December 1st, when there were many claims made, but especially for a more equitable distribution of wages and for re-organisation of the relief and superannuation funds; on November 17th 1,050 miners at Dorignies (Nord) left work.

(vii.) Carmaux miners' strike, 1892.

" The Carmaux strike will remain one of the saddest " episodes of the war between capital and labour."[7] To this opinion all the commentators on this great struggle would yield a ready assent, though not all would agree entirely to the succeeding remarks: " The company let " loose the struggle by its intolerance, the workmen " prolonged it by an attack upon freedom of labour, for " which the Government did not know how to enforce " respect, and the dynamiters seized the opportunity " to sacrifice innocent victims to the Moloch of anarch- " ism." An exhaustive account (which was the result of a searching inquiry on the spot) was given in the pages of *Le Temps* for the 9th, 11th, 18th, and 19th October 1892, of the hidden causes of the strike, which brings out, in a vivid and picturesque way the life of the miner and his surroundings in that highland district of the Tarn Department. The opinion of the writer of these articles as to the immediate cause of the strike agrees with those expressed by contributors to the leading reviews,[8] and with the official account from the Labour Office. " In the month of August a " new conflict arose between the workmen and direc- " tors of the mines at Carmaux, caused not by " changes to be effected in the conditions of work, but " by purely political considerations."[9]

"This strike was was of an entirely novel kind . . . " The Carmaux miner knew very well that he would " derive no material advantage from it, that he would " return to the mines crippled with debts from which " he would take years to set himself free."[10] The strike at Carmaux " was the consequence of discharge " of a workman who had been elected Mayor and Coun- " cillor of the arrondissement. The true, if not the " avowed, motive of this dismissal was purely political. " The opinions of the new Mayor were opposed to those " of the company."[11]

Political character of the strike.

Various as are the views of the part taken by the company shown in the accounts, all agree that the strike and its causes were more purely political than were any others before it, even in France. It is undeniable also that more violent attacks were made upon freedom of labour than heretofore.[12] It is particularly important to trace the main circumstances which led up to the outbreak, and to show how the ground was slowly prepared for it.

Strike earlier in the year and its effects.

And first it seems important to note that in the early part of the year a strike had already broken out on the subject of wages. As early as January 12th certain demands had been made, but it was not until March 7th that 2,800 workers, impatient of delay in response from the company, ceased work.[13] " Under pressure of " public opinion the company accepted arbitration,"[14] and meetings of the arbitrators chosen by both sides

(1) The fines were levied for short attendance, defective lamps, &c.
(2) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series. No. 109, p. 4.
(3) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 148, p. 3.
(4) Statistique Annuelle, 1890. Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, Appendix, p. 42.
(5) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 169, pp. 4, 5. Statistique des Grèves, published 1892, p. 22.
(6) De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage. Office du Travail, 1893, p. 535.
(7) " Journal des Economistes," Novembre 1892.
(8) Notably by M. Gibon (" La Réforme Sociale," February 1892.) M. Gide (" Economic Journal," December 1892.) M. Molinari (" Journal des Econ.," cit.).
(9) De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage, &c., Office du Travail, 1893, p. 551.
(10) " Le Temps," October 18th, 1892.
(11) " Journal des Economistes," September 1892. Cf. " La Revue Socialiste," November 1892.
(12) " La Reforme Sociale," February 1893, p. 262.
(13) De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage, Office du Travail, pp. 543–550.
(14) " Economic Journal," December 1892, article by M. Gide, p. 714.

(three to represent each) were held at the Hôtel de Ville, on March 13th, 14th, and 15th. Under this arbitration the miners were declared to be mainly in the right. "The company had to consent to a rise in wages of 5 " per cent., and to establish a minimum wage of 4.75 " francs." The effect, so far as the workmen were concerned, was naturally to produce in them a fuller degree of self-confidence,(1) and the repulse "did not put the " directors in a good humour, the more so as they were " not long in observing, if their statistics are accurate, " that the workmen relying upon the minimum wage " worked less and turned out less coal. According to " the correspondence in the "Temps," the produce per " workman fell from 716 kilog. to 651 kilog."(2)

Conditions of employment in Carmaux mines.

A slight sketch of the conditions of mining at Carmaux seems indispensable. The collieries are very rich and are situated in a picturesque mountainous district on a spur of the Cevennes less than two miles from Albi. The concession of the mine was granted to the Marquis de Solages in the middle of last century, and in 140 years the working of it has been continually developed. It is asserted that through improvements in working, the position of the miner of industrious habits in Carmaux has been for long superior to that which obtains in other collieries in France.(3) An eight hours' day has been the normal day in this well-regulated mine, where the air is pure and accidents are almost unknown. When accidents do occur the company makes itself responsible for medical and other aid. Nearly all the older inhabitants of Carmaux are miners. The daily rates of wages at the time of the strike were as follows:—(4)

Wages.

(1.) *Underground.*

Hewers and timbermen	5f. 45c.
"By turn men"	4f. 96c.
Banksmen	3f. 75c.
Trammers	3f. 50c.
Cagemen	3f. 75c.

(2.) *Overground.*

Sorters	2f. 18c. to 3f. 22c.
Cokemen	3f. 05c. to 4f. 00c.
Mechanics or tradesmen	3f. 25c. to 5f. 00c.

All workpeople had and have in addition free coal. Many of them were able not only to buy their cottages, but also small plots of ground which they had leisure to cultivate. With extra earnings by the miners' wives the monthly receipts of a family often reached 250 francs, and, as the cost of living are extremely moderate, savings might be effected to the amount of from 500 francs to 1,000 francs in the year.

Character of miners.

Up till the year 1882 no word of socialism had ever been preached in Carmaux, and the community peacefully followed the lead of the mining company in times of elections. "It was a sort of electoral fief in the " hands of the powerful company, who, it was alleged, " distributed their favours and their frowns amongst " the workmen according as they showed themselves " more or less submissive or independent."(5)

From about the date just mentioned a great change began to come over the miner, in his standard of living and in his mental and moral character. From being a model amongst all other industrial workers in the matters of thrift, sobriety, industry, and peaceful ways, he has been transformed into a free-living, and free-thinking "fellow, who aims at being a fine gentleman, " who frequents the bars and gambles . . . . slave " of his factitious wants, the more he gains the more he " spends."(6) There remains still at Carmaux a reserve of the former strong race, but the younger generation has become corrupt in process of emancipation. The growth in number of public-houses (to a total of 131 in the beginning of 1893) for this little town of 9,000 souls, alone showed that a serious change had been effected in a period of three years.(7)

Causes of the change.

The change has been traced mainly to two causes; (1.) The immigration of outside labour into the working of the collieries, which doubled their output in three years. (2.) Growth of the glass factories and establishment of a morally inferior race of workers on the spot. To these must be added as co-ordinate the development of the miners' syndicate, under guidance of its secretary Calvignac, and of the revolutionary propaganda of the *Cercle d'Études Sociales.*

The glass workers.

While the collieries were doubling their numbers of workers the glass works were quadrupling theirs, and the conditions of work in these latter tended to accentuate the unfavourable characteristics of the outside labour employed in them.(8) The opposition in manners and character might have served to keep the miners and glass workers apart had it not been that the glass factories offered too remunerative an opening for the wives and children of the miners to be neglected.

The syndical chamber.

The syndical chamber of the miners which in 1883 was no more than an industrial association for protection of trade interests and maintenance of friendly benefits and which expressly excluded from discussion either political or religious matters, "had become in " 1890 a centre for political discussions, personal, or " religious hatreds of a revolutionary propaganda."(9) The *Cercle d'Études Sociales* fostered this movement. The syndical chamber was founded by a hewer in the mine named Alquier, and immediately recruited by from 500 to 600 members. It was founded broadly on the lines of the Saint Etienne Miners' Syndicate and half the subscriptions (monthly 1 franc, 5 francs entrance) passed into the relief fund. By the beginning of 1892 the members numbered 2,000. After the Saint Etienne Congress of 1883 the ambitious Calvignac replaced Alquier in the office of secretary to the syndicate and on his motion a payment was attached to the post. Under his leadership the syndicate gradually established hostile relations with the company. When the latter proposed that the relief funds should be paid into the State funds (*Caisse Nationale des Retraites*) which offers special advantages to its beneficiaries, Calvignac hotly opposed the suggestion, although on another occasion he commended the superior advantages of the State over private funds.

Calvignac.

By the time of the elections of 1889 Calvignac had acquired considerable influence over the miners and all his weight was thrown on the socialist side in opposition to the Marquis de Solages, who, however, was elected. On the 1st of May 1891, he organised processions of from 2,000 to 3,000 persons, men, women, and children, carrying red flags and shouting seditious songs and cries, in spite of such emblems and songs being prohibited by the prefect. Every time the agents of the municipal police were ordered by the Commissary of Police to make an arrest they refused. The spirit of revolution "was permanently settled in Carmaux" from the date of the election of Calvignac as mayor, that is on May 15th. The writer in the "Temps" remarked that the miners showed their gratitude to the Government for its favourable arbitration at the time of the March strike in a strange way by thus defying its local representatives. The prefect's notice (*arrêté*) forbidding use of revolutionary emblems was carried in the midst of the processions, pinned to a red flag.

These are the main events which led up to the strike that broke out on August 15th in very nearly the same violent way as that at Décazeville in 1886.

But the immediate cause has yet to be brought out. This was very simple according to the strikers. "The " mining company at Carmaux was reactionary. It " saw with displeasure the election of Calvignac to the " office of mayor on May 15th . . . and still more " so his success against their own candidate on " July 31st at the elections for the district council " (conseil d'arrondissement) and the day after this " election they dismissed him without pretext. It " dealt a blow at the liberty of universal suffrage, and " struck not at the workman (Calvignac) who was " irreproachable, but at the representative of the " masses."(10)

Against such a statement has to be weighed the confirmed fact that, in the two months and a half following his election to the mayoralty, Calvignac had attended work on only 17 days. He had obtained leave of absence for 18 days and had handed in, "purely it would " seem as a personal favour, a certificate of illness for " 26 days."(11)

The company summoned Calvignac to explain his conduct, and on his refusal to choose between his duties

(1) "L'exaltation du mineur n'eut plus de bornes," "Le Temps," October 19, 1893.
(2) "Economic Journal," cit., p. 714.
(3) "Le Temps," October 11, 1892. "La Réforme Sociale," February 1893, pp. 263-4.
(4) "La Réforme Sociale," loc. cit.
(5) "Economic Journal" cited, p. 714.
(6) "La Réforme Sociale," February 16, 1893, p. 266.
(7) "Le Temps," October 11, 1892.
(8) *See* infra, Division II., for conditions of employment.
(9) "Le Temps," October 11, 1892.
(10) "Le Temps," October 18th, 1892.
(11) "Economic Journal" cited, p. 715.

to them and his duties as a mayor (which they said was insolent) they discharged him.

It does not appear why, if there was anything unjust in his dismissal, Calvignac did not sue the company and obtain the damages that would have been legally due to him.

Mistakes of the directors.

On the other hand, however just may be the grounds of complaint that the company had against Calvignac and his followers in the mines, the directors cannot be acquitted of extraordinary want of circumspection in their choice of a moment to deal with the offender. If there was no political rancour in their action they seemed to have wilfully exposed themselves to the charge of it. They gave Calvignac the pretext for an explosion which was of all others most acceptable to him. A striker informed the correspondent of the "Temps" that had the company chosen their moment better Calvignac would have hardly had 1,000 supporters where he had 2,800.

Attack on M. Humblot on August 15th.

On August 15th, the excited strikers forced their way into the house of the director, M. Humblot, and summoned him with threats on his life to revoke Calvignac's discharge or to sign his own resignation. He accepted the latter alternative, and Calvignac as mayor of the commune intervened somewhat dramatically at this point to restore order. The strike continued, and as the soil for it had been well prepared, all kinds of violent or sometimes anarchical resolutions were passed at meetings of the strikers. Their cause was espoused by congresses and socialist bodies all over France, and deputies such as MM. Baudin, Lafargue, Ferroul, and others came down to the spot to organise meetings. "One of them in particular, Baudin, a working man "deputy for the department of the Cher, who had "made a speciality of taking strikes in hand, fixed "himself permanently at Carmaux, came to fisticuffs "with the gendarmes, and had such a success amongst "the workmen that his popularity caused that of "Calvignac to wane and called forth a sentiment of "jealousy in the latter."(1)

Picketing and intimidation.

Picketing was organised with unusual vigour, and by September 8th the prefect for Tarn came in person to notify to Calvignac and Baudin that if they continued their attacks on freedom of labour they should both be arrested. The activity continued without these threats of arrest being carried into effect. By the end of September the miners began to make specific proposals to the company who long withstood any suggestions of arbitration. One of the proposals was that Calvignac should be considered as on furlough during his period of office and should be reinstated at the end. This was refused by the company, but they offered instead to maintain the mayor of the commune. At the same time the Marquis de Solages resigned his position as deputy, "thus "replying to those who reproached him with exercising "political pressure."(2)

The Government.

It is curious to note the attitude of the Government, who by this time had sent troops to the neighbourhood to preserve order, and who yet did not insist upon the maintenance of freedom of labour for non-syndicated workmen. The members of the syndicates still organised pickets to watch the pits' mouths day and night and prevent any workman from entering. At length, in response to a public demand, on October 11th the prefect sent an order to stop this picketing, to disperse street gatherings and groups of more than two or three persons. The order was annulled by the refusal of the mayor to post it. Such defiance was fittingly followed by increased disorder, and by the dynamite outrage, which destroyed five people unconcerned in the conflict, and the author of which remained undiscovered.(3) By this time, however, some arrests had been made by the gendarmerie, and in due course sentences were passed by the courts at Albi varying from eight days to four months, in some cases with fines added.

The greater part of the strike occurred during Parliamentary recess. The Chambers, however, met again on October 18th, and "it was generally thought that "the first sitting would be the last day of the Ministry. ". . . Speakers on the right and on the left rose in "succession giving notice of motions of censure against "the Government, when at a solemn challenge from "M. Viette, Minister of Public Works, Baron Reille, "the president of the company, ascended the tribune, "and declared that for the sake of peace the company "consented to arbitration, and elected as its arbitrator "M. Loubet, president of the council."(4)

The miners' syndicate consented to arbitration after pressure had been brought to bear upon them by the deputies, but decided to continue the strike until the verdict should be made known. Their demands were enumerated in the award of M. Loubet delivered on October 26th, which ran as follows:— M. Loubet's arbitration.

"The undersigned, the arbitrator nominated by the Carmaux Mines Company, and by the company's workmen for the purpose of settling the points dividing the parties, has successively heard MM. Clemenceau, Pelletan, and Millerand, deputies representing the workmen, M. Calvignac, a workman of the company and mayor of Carmaux; Baron Reille, chairman of the company, assisted by M. Humblot, manager; M. Dujardin Beaumetz, consulting engineer; MM. Betolaud and Rousset, barristers. The delegates of the workmen in their behalf thus formulated their claims: (1.) Re-instatement of Calvignac; (2.) Re-instatement of all the workmen without exception; (3.) Removal of M. Humblot, manager. On these various heads it was replied by the representatives of the company: (1.) That they acted by virtue of the regulations in dismissing M. Calvignac; (2.) That they are ready to take back all the workmen employed by the company at the time of the strike, with the exception of those who have been convicted by the Albi magistrates; (3.) That they cannot agree to the removal of M. Humblot. After several times hearing the representatives of the workmen and of the company, and taking cognizance of the documents handed to him—

"On the first point (re-instatement of M. Calvignac), considering that the dismissal of M. Calvignac cannot be justified from July 15 to August 2; that he was on regular leave given by the company's doctor; that the dismissal shortly after his election to the mayoralty and arrondissement council may have legitimately appeared a blow dealt at universal suffrage; that, therefore, the company has exceeded its right; but considering that Calvignac's new functions cannot permit him to devote himself to regular work, and that in this situation it appears fair, while maintaining him as the company's workman, to grant him leave of absence during the whole time that his functions as mayor shall last:

"On the second point (re-instatement of all the workmen without exception), considering that there is ground for drawing a distinction between the workmen who have simply taken part in the strike and those who, in connection with that strike have indulged in acts which have led to summary convictions; as regards the former, considering that they have only used a right conferred on them by the law, and consequently should be taken back by the company; as regards the latter, considering that in resorting to violence they have exceeded their right, and justified the company's refusal to take them back:

"On the third point (removal of M. Humblot), considering that nothing is alleged which is of a nature to warrant the dismissal of this servant of the company:

"The undersigned arbitrator has given the following decision:—(1.) Calvignac shall be re-installed in his functions as the company's workman. Leave of absence is granted him during all the time that his functions as mayor shall last. (2.) All the workmen who have struck shall be taken back by the company, with the exception of those who have been convicted by the Albi magistrates. (3.) There is no ground for the removal of M. Humblot.—LOUBET. Paris, October 26, 1892."

A semi-official note added that M. Humblot intended to resign the post of manager.

Strikers' reply.

After a few hours' deliberation the following resolution was drawn up by the strike committee:—

"The strike committee, having heard the decision of the arbitrator read by the prefect of the Tarn, and having considered its contents, resolve that, whereas the arbitrator himself sets forth in his decision that the dismissal of the mayor of Carmaux is a violation of universal suffrage, and in consequence finds that Calvignac should be re-instated; whereas further, this decision, although providing for the re-instatement of Calvignac, decrees that leave must be accorded him during his mayoralty, from which fact the re-instatement is virtually nullified, the leave and re-instatement being simultaneous, while it is necessary, for the re-instatement to be effective, that Calvignac should be allowed to return directly to the mines; whereas it is

(1) "Economic Journal" cited, p. 716.
(2) *Ib.*, p. 717.
(3) "La Réforme Sociale," March 1, 1893, p. 353.
(4) "Economic Journal" cited.

because they hold the same opinion with reference to the dismissal of Calvignac as that expressed in the arbitrator's decision that the workmen on August 15 went in a body before the directors to demand the complete reinstatement of the elected representative; whereas the decision of their arbitrator vainly endeavours to make a distinction between the miners who joined together on August 15 by stating that all those who went out on strike will be taken back, while those upon whom the severity of the courts of law has already fallen will be excluded; whereas the 10 miners condemned were only found at the house of the manager in company with the whole of their comrades, who have never repudiated their responsibility for their acts; whereas in addition other miners have been sentenced during the strike, and may have to undergo the same exclusion; whereas, under these conditions, it is not possible for the strike committee to accept a decision which, while declaring that universal suffrage has been violated, not only accords no satisfaction to its defenders, but turns against them; whereas further, the ridiculous character of this decision has been justly appreciated by the prefect of the Tarn in explaining it to the committee and advising them to accept it 'with resignation, if not with enthusiasm'—the strike committee, after having deliberated on the matter, unanimously resolve that it is not possible for them to submit to the decision of the arbitrator, and also resolve to continue the strike by all peaceable and legitimate means, and appeal from the decision to Republican opinion, awaiting the verdict with confidence. Signed on behalf of and by order of the committee, J. F. MAZENS, president; COLMETTE, secretary."

"Grace" of the Government.

The award was held up to public indignation in the papers by MM. Clémenceau, Pelletan, and Millerand. A petition was presented to the Government for an "amnesty" (or exculpation) for the prisoners sentenced at Albi. A strong vote in the Chamber rejected this proposal, as also the suggestion that the troops should be withdrawn from Carmaux; but a "grace," *i.e.*, a decision remitting the penalty of the crime, was agreed to by the Government on condition that the miners should accept the arbitration and return to work.

Acceptance of terms.

These terms were accepted by the strikers, under advice of the three Radical deputies, who were, no doubt, influenced by the strong vote in the Chamber, and who promised to find work for the condemned strikers. M. Humblot resigned his post, so that practically the strikers gained most of their points. It is a curious epilogue to the story, however, that when the election of the successor to Marquis de Solages took place, no miner could be found to nominate the hero Calvignac. "This proves that the Carmaux miners are by no means such bad judges of men."(1)

Cost of strike to the miners.

The cost of the strike to the miners in wages was calculated at 800,000 francs, and certainly they underwent some cruel sufferings for the principle they adopted—"Vindication of manhood suffrage."

Picketing and intimidation.

M. Gibon says of this strike that it was distinguished amongst all others not only by its acutely political character, but also by its incidents: "The tyrannical "action of the syndicate towards non-strikers; the "agitations of the socialist municipality tolerated by "the Government; the violence of the strikers shown "in revolutionary language, songs of war against "society, . . violences, . . insults of the pickets "to the soldiery, . . ; by the feebleness of the Go-"vernment, which under political pressure set free "men who were capable of most censurable acts."(2) (3)

(*b.*) Transport and Allied Industries.

(i.) Strike of railway servants, 1891.

The strike of railway servants in 1891 affected six companies or lines and extended to 6,059 workers. The demands were various, but the most important were for an increase in wages together with a reduction of the hours of labour. The strikers included enginemen and porters concerned both in the passenger and goods traffic, together with the men in the workshops. Of the latter alone there were 2,351. The following figures show the number of strikers for each railway:—Nord, 1,185. Est, 685. Ouest, 959. Orléans, 1,282. Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, 1,927. Ceinture, 21. The strike lasted only four days, however, and the strikers were entirely defeated.

(ii.) Omnibus strike at Paris, May 1891.

The omnibus strike of May 25 to 27, 1891, in Paris is one of those rare cases where recourse was had voluntarily to an outside arbitration. The demand was for an increase in wages and a reduction of the hours of labour and 1,316 men came out.(4) Two delegates of their syndicate had asked an interview of the Administrative council of the company for the purpose of laying before them the demands of themselves and their fellow workers. The council replied on May 20th by a formal refusal to receive the delegates. On May 21st MM. Vacqueri chief editor of the "Rappel," Mesurer, deputy, and Pierre Lefèvre applied for leave to bring representative members of the syndicate and discuss the claims that had been formulated by the workmen. The reply of the Director was that he would receive M. Mesureur "as a deputy and a former municipal councillor"; this was a refusal to treat with the syndicate. At a meeting on May 24, the strike was decided on and the next morning omnibus and tramway traffic was suspended throughout Paris. The administrative council of the company then called upon the Municipal Council to provide for mediation, and M. Levraud, the president, accepted the office. After long discussions an agreement was signed by the disputants in M. Levraud's office, and in the presence of the Committee of the Municipal Council. It arranged that: (1) Employés dismissed since May 10 were to be re-instated; (2) the day was not to exceed twelve hours, including mealtimes, and that this arrangement was to commence on June 18th; (3) further claims of the employés were to be discussed between the representatives of the company and of the members of the legally constituted syndicate.

Work was resumed on May 27th.

After observing the clause relative to the days' labour for some time, the company attempted to substitute an average twelve hours' day for the fixed twelve hours. On the dispute which resulted, the Tribunal of Commerce for the Seine was invited to arbitrate. Its decision was dated February 4, 1892, and held the company bound by the terms of clause (2) of the agreement into which it had entered. "The General "Omnibus Company is bound not to compel its "employés to work more than twelve hours a day "from the moment of leaving to the moment of "turning into the yard exclusive of mealtimes (1½ "hours)." The company also was condemned to pay the costs.(5)

(iii.) Strike of Paris navvies and carpenters, 1888.

The strikes of Paris navvies and carpenters in 1888 were closely connected with each other.

The Paris navvies struck on July 25, with a demand for a nine hours day, a six days' week (Sunday rest), and a minimum wage of 60 centimes an hour. They objected to the existing system of eleven hours, and declared that the wages averaged 44 centimes. Twelve thousand workmen were out between July 25th and August 18th. It was reported that the strike committee received 12,758 francs (508*l.*) for distribution among the strikers. Many were starving when they returned to work. The masters' ultimatum was a minimum wage of 50 centimes an hour without limits as to hours. The men returned to work on the masters' terms.

The carpenters in Paris and suburbs also came out on August 14th for a nine hours' day and a minimum wage of 80 centimes an hour. Of the 20,000 carpenters in Paris, the greater number were said to have been earning between six and seven francs a day. As, however, a certain number were unemployed, the strike committee declared that the average wage was four francs a day. Only 300 of the carpenters still held out for the 80 centimes minimum at the end of a week. On August 24th they gave in entirely. The employers' contention was that a uniform wage frustated their intention of reserving the lighter tasks for the older or weaker members of the trade. They maintained that they could not pay the same wage for 54 hours' work as for 72 hours. The theory of the men was that

(1) "Economic Journal," December 1892, p. 721.
(2) "La Réforme Sociale," April 1, 1893, p. 530.
(3) The miners' strike of this summer and autumn, which has just come to an end, has been the occasion for another intervention on the part of M. Clémenceau, who is for a time excluded from political life. Possibly his dependence on journalism himself led to his proposal that the Paris press should arbitrate in the strike, while his earlier leaning to the workmen's side in collective disputes is emphasised by his being out of Parliament. However, on the day after the consideration by the Editors' Syndicate of M. Clémenceau's proposal, the strike was declared closed at a delegate meeting at Lens by 98 votes to 16. The distraction of public sympathy due to the Russian visit seems to have taken away the last chance of prolonging the strike. This recalls the circumstances which closed the strike among tailors, detailed on p. 45.—G.D., 7/11/93.

(4) Statistique des Grèves, p. 100. De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage, p. 527.
(5) Cf. *supra*, p. 33.

there would be no unemployed if Sunday were made a legal holiday, hours were reduced to eight or nine a day, and all foreigners were excluded. In these two struggles for the same purpose it is curious to observe that the more highly skilled trade gave in more readily. "Those who were ready to incur risk were few in "comparison with those who preferred the security "of their employment." The result of the unskilled labourers' strike was "to eliminate weak and aged "men, and to leave none but those able to compete for "the earning of an uniform rate of wages."(1)

(iv.) Strike of navvies and other labourers on the Brives and Limoges Railway in 1888.

The movement on the Brives and Limoges railway which began at the close of the strike of Paris navvies ended more favourably for the men than the Paris strikes, but there (Haute Vienne and Corréze) the wages were much lower. "The line . . . . was "undertaken at a time when wages were lower than "usual, and it is said that contractors outbid each "other imprudently enough in making cheap offers "for sections of the permanent way. They hoped to "recoup themselves by paying low wages to the "numerous hands who were idle at that time on "account of a slack season in the slate quarries, and "other districts through which the line passed." They said they actually could obtain workmen of all kinds for an average rate of 37½ centimes an hour for time work and 6 francs a day for piece-work. The men on strike declared that the average rate paid was less than this, and they asked for an increase, which would mean an average rate of 47½ centimes an hour; piecework was to be disallowed. The contractors refused the advance asked and would only consent to a slight rise in the rates for unskilled labour, which would mean an average of 39 centimes; they refused to disallow piecework.

On September 1, a good many men had returned to work, but the strike was not at an end before October 1st.(2)

(v.) Strike of Paris navvies, 1891.

The strike among navvies (*terrassiers*) or daily labourers employed on earth works in Paris in August 1891 was interesting not so much because of its size or the demands of the strikers as because of the determination shown at the time by the Government to protect freedom of labour.

For some time considerable dissatisfaction had been felt among the workers on account of the low rate of their wages, which, according to one of their leaders, had been steadily falling from 45 centimes to 40 centimes, and even 35 centimes since a successful strike of some years before. "This dissatisfaction culminated at the end of "July, when more than 2,000 labourers went out. On "July 31st a meeting was held at the Labour "Exchange and a general strike was declared. In "addressing the meeting the president of the strike "committee laid stress on the bad faith of the masters "who in 1882,(3) had agreed to a minimum wage of 60 "centimes an hour, and strongly urged that they should "all continue on strike till their employers signed an "agreement granting those terms. This proposal was "adopted, and a committee was formed for the purpose "of extending the movement and preventing the "places of those on strike being filled by others."(4) An active propaganda was then carried on and several other batches of earth workers in the suburbs of Paris joined the strike, while the carters raised threats of coming out. Attempts of "agitators" to organise interference with navvies who had not struck brought about conflicts with the police and gendarmerie who had been posted to keep order. Numerous arrests were made and heavy sentences passed. A specially serious struggle took place at the Villette canal, "where "an organised attempt was made to drive away the "men employed on it from the works . . . It was "only by calling up reinforcements that the gendar-"merie were able to protect the men, and then not "without some bloodshed." Moderate Republican organs drew attention at the time to the "dangers that "might ensue from abuse of the extensive privileges "granted to labour associations."(5) Some alarm was felt at the attempts that were made to induce the street sweepers and sewer men to organise thoroughly and join the strike so as to bring pressure to bear upon municipal authorities. By August 19th some of the employers had accepted the terms of the men, but the strike was not closed until some time later.(6)

(1) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 109, p. 2. This result may be compared with that of the great London dock strike of the same year.
(2) Foreign Office Report, No. 109.
(3) *See* Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 109, however, Can this be the strike of 1888 when the masters promised a minimum wage of 50c.?
(4) Memorandum by Foreign Office, by Mr. Condie Stephen, dated Paris, August 19th, 1891.
(5) *Ib.*

(c.) Textiles, Clothing, Glass, and Miscellaneous.

(i.) Stocking weavers' strike, August 1888.

In August 1888 a strike of stocking weavers took place at Troyes in the mills of Messrs. Mauchauffée on the ground of unjust dismissal of a workman named Cotel. After the strike had commenced various demands were put forward—for new rates of pay, for abolition of fines for irregular attendance, for suppression of overtime, for supply of articles used by mill hands at cost price, and other changes. The men also claimed to be treated as a body through their syndicate and not singly. "Messrs. Mauchauffée met the last "of these demands by a coalition of the syndicates of "employers. They entered men to take the place of "those on strike, and carried a resolution under which "all the mill owners of Troyes declared a lock-out "to take effect on a certain day. A meeting of the "rival unions of syndicates only revealed the conflict-"ing views of both sides. The men required the "reinstatement of Cotel and the dismissal of the new "hands; they refused to treat (with their employers) "except as a workmen's syndicate. The employers "expressed their willingness to treat with delegates "of the men, but refused to discuss matters with a "deputation of the syndicate. They consented to an "increase of wages for plain stocking weaving; they "reduced the fines for irregular attendance to from "25 centimes to 50 centimes, provided the men were not "more than ten minutes late. They professed to have no "interest in the question of overtime, and they "promised to force no man to take two looms unless "he liked."(7)

After holding out for six weeks the men went back on the terms offered by the employers.

(ii.) Strikes among textile operatives at Roubaix in May 1890.

The strikes among textile operatives at Roubaix, on the Belgian frontier, in 1890, were of a serious character. They were mostly connected with the demonstrations of May 1st. The nature of the agitations and demands of this year have already been pointed out in connection with the miners' strikes. "The chief centre of dis-"turbance was at Roubaix, where upwards of 30,000 "workmen spent May 1st idling in the street, and "claiming eight hours and 30 per cent. increase to wages. ". . . In some cases the same wages were asked "for ten hours as for twelve, in other cases more for "ten hours than had hitherto been paid for twelve. "The masters might have seen their way to concede "higher pay, but they declared themselves unable to "make any concessions as to short time until the "Government procured an international agreement to "that effect. . . . Unfortunately the strikers at "Roubaix, Turcoing and that vicinity, were not satis-"fied with peaceful agitation, they formed themselves "into bands which scoured the country, broke into "mills, threatened the lives of manufacturers, and "caused grave anxiety to the authorities."(8) The following table shows the progress of the strike at Roubaix as regards spinning operatives.

TABLE XV.

No. of Strikers.	Factories.	Dates.	Cause.
73	1	April 11 to 22.	Demand for increased wage.
1,265	7	May 1 to 6	Demand for 10 hours' day, with 12 hours' wage.
1,720	5	„ 1 to 7	„ „
1,000	7	„ 1 to 8	„ „
435	3	„ 1 to 9	„ „
100	1	„ 1 to 10	„ „
1,352	12	„ 1 to 12	„ „
60	1	„ 3 to 8	„ „
675	4	„ 5 to 9	„ „
600	6	„ 5 to 10	„ „

(6) The French Official Statistics for 1891 make no mention of this strike. No account can be obtained of the final steps which led to the end of the strike.
(7) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series. No. 109, 1888, p. 3. No particulars are given as to the numbers involved in this strike.
(8) Foreign Office, Miscellaneous Series, No. 169.

Thus 47 factories were affected for a period of one month by 7,910 strikers among spinners. The result was defeat for the strikers.

The course among dyers at Roubaix was as follows :—

No. of Strikers.	Factories.	Dates.	Cause.
35	1	May 1 to 5	Demand for reduction of hours and increased wage.
505	3	„ 1 to 6	„ „
1,440	8	„ 1 to 8	„ „
320	2	„ 1 to 9	„ „
835	9	„ 3 to 12	„ „
20	1	„ 3 to 6	„ „
13	1	„ 3 to 8	„ „
400	1	„ 3 to 9	„ „
80	1	„ 5 to 8	„ „
720	6	„ 5 to 9	„ „

Thus in 32 dying works 4,668 workers came out, and the strike extended in all over twelve days. The strikers were defeated.

A similar table might be made out for the weavers; of these there were 10,131 strikers, and 65 factories were affected. The strike extended from April 30th to May 13th, and was defeated.(1)

(iii.) Strikes in textile trades in 1891.

Large strikes took place among workers in the textile trades in 1891. The most important was amongst the weavers in Sedan and its environs (Ardennes) which lasted from March 29th to May 19th and extended to 3,500 hand and loom workers. The demand of the strikers was for an increase in wages, which they eventually obtained.(2)

Another important strike was amongst the spinners at Wignehies in the Nord department. On July 14th 100 spinners in one factory came out in protest against the dismissal of a worker. On August 17th they were joined by 1,750 spinners from three other factories, who suspended work in order to show sympathy with the cause. These latter returned to work on September 1st. The others returned on September 12th. The strike was unsuccessful, and 280 workers were dismissed.

(iv.) Strike of working tailors, Paris, 1885.

A strike in Paris of six weeks' duration among tailors' assistants in 1885 presented some interesting features, and revealed certain important facts in the tailoring trade.

The official declaration of the strike by the strike committee was made on April 28th. Demands were made for a reduction of the hours of labour, an increase of wages, and a reform of the workshops in matters of sanitation, by a small, restless anarchist group called *L'Aiguille*. On the last point they said they were prepared to temporise. The time workers were in receipt of 9 francs a day, and asked for an advance of 10 centimes an hour; the piece-workers were in receipt of from 100 to 150 francs a week, and asked for an advance of 2 francs a piece.

It is important to notice in connection with these demands that in the preceding 30 years the wages of working tailors had advanced 50 per cent. while the selling price of the garments had remained almost stationary, that the advance asked meant an additional rate of 16 per cent., while the firms spent already 40 per cent. in wages, and only made 20 per cent. profits. In addition to the wages the employers subscribed to the relief fund. The employers declared at the outset that it was quite impossible for them to add anything to the wages bill.

Character of the working tailor.

M. Renault wrote in 1887 that the working tailor was more luxurious and less thrifty than any other class of workers, and pointed out that amongst 30,000 of them only 219 of them supported their mutual aid society.(3) A delegate of the syndical chamber of cutters acknowledged that he earned 4,000 francs yearly, and his wife 2 francs a day, but that he had never saved a franc.

At the beginning of the strike 50 workshops were deserted, and on the next day 200 more. "The strikers "threw themselves into the movement with all the "carelessness of artists, forgetting the most important "point of having well replenished funds." At first tumultuous meetings were held amongst them, but after about eight days of anarchy some organisation grew up.

Progress of the strike.

On May 10th, at one of their meetings, a cutter was forcibly expelled for pointing out that the sinews of war were wanting, since they had no money. On the 15th a serious skirmish took place in the Mathurin and Tronchet Streets; on the 17th some arrests were made; on the 18th serious attacks on free labour were carried out in the street.

On the 20th a half-hearted proposal for a conference with the employers was made. "From this moment "the termination of the strike seemed to be only a "matter of time." The funeral of Victor Hugo distracted attention, and there were so many defections from the band of strikers that the committee announced to an inquirer that three-fourths were "false." Twelve days later the strike was officially closed, after having lasted six weeks.

Attitude of the employers.

The employers were thoroughly united and firm in resisting the demands of the strikers throughout, and secured the assistance of their creditors among the cloth and silk merchants. Their reply to the proposal of conference was: "If we had been able to consider "the smallest rise in wages we would already have "done so." They admitted no point for consideration but the return of the men to work. Many of the men did so eight days before the final submission. The position of the employers was rendered more difficult by competition on the part of the English clothiers.(4)

(v.) Strike of glassworkers at La Mulatière in 1886.

The strike of glassworkers at La Mulatière in the Rhône department in September 1886 lasted over three months and caused serious loss and suffering to French industry, but had one good result in bringing about an improved understanding between employers and employed in that district.

On April 8th two hundred workers of the Allouard-Dumont glassworks announced a strike which was to begin on the following day. They expected to be joined by all the other glassworkers in the district, numbering about 1,400.(5)

The alleged cause was an attempt to reduce wages. The demands of the strikers were for a revision of tariffs, some of which were too high, others too low.

Attack on imported labourers.

On May 7th a very serious attack was made on the Allouard works where several imported labourers had been established. One of them was, it was alleged, a Prussian, whose advent was notified to the strikers (who were engaged at the time in meetings) by some women and children. These women took part in the struggle that immediately followed. Revolvers were used. Eighteen arrests were made.

Committee of mediation.

On the 9th and 11th some of the individuals arrested were set free and on the 12th an attempt at mediation was made by a former master glassworker (*maître verrier*). The employers consented to his nomination as mediator, and on the 14th he began his inquiry with the help of a committee of four workers. On the 18th, however, the workmen made a demand for (1) arrest of M. Allouard, and (2) dismissal of the workers who had replaced the strikers or remained at work when the strike was declared. To the latter proposal the employers could only return an energetic refusal. As for the former demand, the workmen themselves apparently withdrew it. From that time the situation was altered by the systematic attempt of the employers to introduce outside labour. They declared that it was impossible to arrange one uniform tariff for every works.

The strikers were further excited by an incidental strike of leather workers in the neighbourhood in the end of June.

Successful picketing.

Picketing of the works where imported labour had been introduced was systematically and successfully carried out. The new workers twice over joined the strikers and entered the syndicate with enthusiasm.

On July 9th the workmen proposed at a meeting to ask a grant of 400,000 francs from the Minister of the Interior in order that they might manage a glass factory for themselves.

On the 16th, however, the committee of mediation tired of going up and down between the disputing parties started the idea of adopting the tariff

(1) Statistique des Grèves, 1892, pp. 35-41.
(2) Statistique des Grèves, 1892, p. 89.
(3) Histoire des Grèves, 1887, p. 180.
(4) Histoire des Grèves, pp. 178-185.
(5) The account is not exact as to the numbers who joined, but it appears that all the glassworkers, except one, were gradually involved. Histoire des Grèves, pp. 255-262.

of the one glass factory which had not been affected by the strike. On July 11th this compromise was adopted by both employers and syndical delegates and the strike was declared at an end. The Allouard-Dumont firm was the only one which refused to discharge the workmen who had not fraternised with the strikers. It was accordingly boycotted.

A dynamite explosion on December 17th at M. Allouard's private house was connected with this fact. No person was injured and the event seemed to be the last echo of the strike.

(vi.) Strike of bakers at St. Ouen and St. Denis, 1888.

One of the most curious strikes of 1888 was among the bakers of St. Ouen and St. Denis in October.

A syndicate of bakers had been formed in these suburbs of Paris which exercised its growing power to raise the price of bread to what was considered an undue extent by the municipality. Under an old law of 1791 the municipalities of France have power to fix a maximum price of bread. In the majority of the Communes the exercise of the power had fallen into abeyance, although it was a common thing for the local authorities to advertize a quoted price for the guidance of bakers; the latter considered themselves at liberty to realise higher quotations if they could. The maximum proposed at St. Ouen in 1887 was 74 centimes for 2 kilos of bread (7⅕*d.* for 4 lbs. 6½ oz. av.) and the bakers declared they could only do this at a loss. At St. Denis the maximum was not advertised until September 15th, 1888, at 76 centimes (7½*d.*) for 2 kilos.

Statute of 1791.

Ring of bakers.

It was stated that the bakers' syndicate had "kept " household bread at 80 centimes (7⅘*d.*) for 2 kilos " and had caused the failure of one refractory member " of the trade by underselling him for dealing at prices " below those of the syndicate."(1) When the notice of the municipality came out, the St. Denis bakers combined to close their shops at the same time. In St. Ouen the bakers gave their men notice of a reduction in wages of over twenty per cent. (45 francs to 35 francs). The men left work and the community were reduced to the same discomfort as in St. Denis. There the people stormed the chief bakery and plundered it. In both places the municipality imported bread and sold it at the maximum price. This action forced the bakers and their men to capitulate. Such troubles were, it is said, avoided in the provincial towns where co-operative bakeries existed. The expenses of a baker baking daily 2½ sacks or 400 kilos were proved during the strike to be annually 6,688 francs 45 centimes. Upon this basis "the municipality, taking the price of " flour also into account, fixed the maximum price of " bread at 75 centimes for 2 kilos; the cost of making " being taken at 11 francs per 100 kilos per diem."(2)

Co-operative bakeries.

(vii.) Strike of bakers at Marseilles, February 1893.

A similar strike of bakers took place at Marseilles in February 1893. This time the mayor and municipal council considered that 40 centimes per kilog. was too high a price and reduced the standard to 37½ centimes. The bakers in the neighbouring towns joined in protest with the Marseilles bakers. Bread could not be provided in spite of great efforts by the municipality, and riots ensued. Eventually the bakers accepted the standard officially fixed, under protest, declaring that they would petition against interference. It was in October 1892 that the Chamber last refused by a great majority to reconsider the law of 1791.(3)

(viii.) Matchmakers' strike, April 1893.

The matchmakers' strike in the Government factories at Pantin, Trélazé, Bordeaux, and other places, in April 1893, raised some very interesting points, and especially showed the difficulties that might be introduced for the State as an employer of labour if any measure such as the Bovier-Lapierre Bill (4) were to become law. One of the foremost demands of these strikers was that a syndical workman discharged by the director should be reinstated without even a reproof for the offence for which he was discharged.

(1) *Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 109, p. 5.*
(2) *Do. do. p. 6.*
(3) *"La Revue d'Economie Politique," March 1893.*
(4) Which is as follows:—
Article I. All employers, labour contractors and foremen, who shall have been proved to have by threats, of loss of employment, or deprival of work, refusal to engage workmen or *employés*, or by threatening to discharge them on account of being members of a syndicate by acts of violence and assault, gifts, offers, or promises of work, obligation or hindrance to become members of professional syndicates recognised by the law of March 21, 1884, shall be punished by imprisonment of six days to one month and a fine of 100 fr. to 2,000 fr., or by one or other of such penalties only.
Article II. The provisions of Article 463 of the Penal Code are applicable to the penalties edicted by Article I., supra.
Article III. The present law is applicable to Algeria and the Colonies of Martinique, Guadeloupe, and the island of Réunion.

Claims made.

For some months before the strike the matchmakers had been putting forward demands for an increase in wages. Certain classes of the workers gained a slight increase, but others alleged that they had sustained a loss through modification of the tariffs. Eventually the strike was announced, and the claims were: (1) For time-workers, 5 francs (men) and 3 francs 50 (women); (2) for piece-workers, 6 francs (men) and 4 francs (women); (3) limitation of the day's labour to 10 hours; (4) improvement in the hygiene of the factories, *e.g.*, by use of red instead of white phosphorus.(5) It was pointed out in the course of negotiations that lead poisoning of a slow but sure kind was prevalent throughout the factories, and that, while the State ostensibly pensioned its workpeople, these latter hardly ever reached the age when the pension became due. A pension of 600 francs a year was due after 30 years' service and at 55 years of age. The workmen declared that a match factory worker never lived so long.

After several days had failed to bring about any understanding between the directors and the strikers, the former having declared that they could not entertain any thought of the proposed increase in wages, the proposal above referred to, relating to the syndicated workman, was added to the first claims.

Mediation of deputies.

At this point certain deputies took the matter in hand, and, after notice of an interpellation had been given, the Minister of Finances consented to receive a body of the workpeople led by the deputies. Fair promises were given at the meeting, and hopes of an immediate arrangement were entertained. But other meetings had to be arranged before the difficulty of the dismissed syndicated workman could be got over. Eventually, "after a show of firmness, the Minister " capitulated to the workmen without a single con- " dition."(6) The increase of wages asked was given. The workpeople went to tear down the notices of the director, and posted up an exultant manifesto instead.

Factories involved.

Five match factories were involved in the strike. One of the largest, Trélazé, a few miles from Angers, employs 260 workpeople, of whom 90 are men, 170 women. In all, these factories produce 29 milliards of matches in the year.

Comments on the significance of the strike.

In their comments on the events of the strike, one party pointed out the blow struck at order and discipline by this capitulation to State servants, who, it was alleged, had advantages in their conditions of employment unknown in private enterprises; (7) the other party declared the conditions of employment in these State factories to be in reality inconceivably worse than in private factories. The directors of the State factories, "assured of their good salary and absolute " impunity, laugh at the prescriptions and regulations " imposed by the law on employers in private industry. " Official industry and Government labour are above " the laws, and those who direct them make light of " odious abuses and inhuman practices, against which " the present movement claims measures of protec- " tion."(8) In support of these statements instances are quoted of punishments inflicted for minor offences on women, such as standing at work for two or three days for the offence of talking. Terrible descriptions are given of the process of lead poisoning, which seems inevitable where no precautions are taken against the use of white phosphorus.

3. *General Results of Strikes.*

(*a*) Results of strikes from 1888 to 1891.

Out of the total number of strikes in 1888, which was 110, 22 were favourable in their results to the workers, 24 were concluded with a compromise, and 64 failed. Out of 321 strikes in 1889, 65 were favourable in their results for workers, 65 were concluded with a compromise, 166 failed, and in the case of 25 the results remained unknown to the authorities.

The following tables show the results of strikes in these years, and in 1890 and 1891, classifying them at the same time according to their causes.(9)

(5) "L'Économiste Français," April 22, 1893, article by M. George Michel. "L'Association Catholique," April 15th, 1893, p. 496.
(6) "L'Économiste Français" cited.
(7) View of the writer in "L'Économiste Français," quoted above.
(8) View of the writer in "L'Association Catholique," quoted above.
(9) *See* Statistique des Grèves, 1892, and Statistique Générale, 1890.

TABLE XVA.

SHEWING RESULTS of STRIKES in 1888 and 1889.

Strikes on Account of	Number of Strikes followed by								Totals.	
	Success.		Compromise.		Negative Results.		Unknown.			
	1888.	1889.	1888.	1889.	1888.	1889.	1888.	1889.	1888.	1889.
Increase of wages	4	33	10	34	17	94	—	—	31	161
Diminution of wages	11	10	11	11	26	15	—	—	48	36
Divers causes	7	22	3	20	21	27	—	—	31	99
Unknown	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	25	—	25
Totals	22	65	24	65	64	166	—	25	110	321

TABLE XVB.

SHEWING RESULTS of STRIKES in 1890 and 1891.

Strikes on Account of	Number of Strikes followed by								Total Number of			
	Success.		Compromise.		Defeat.		Unknown.		Strikes.		Strikers.	
	1890.	1891.	1890.	1891.	1890.	1891.	1890.	1891.	1890.	1891.	1890.	1891.
Wages	65	73	48	47	104	65	2	2	219	187	64,636	86,683
Hours	10	4	9	8	25	9	2	—	46	21	47,043	11,902
Unionism or syndical claims.	—	2	1	3	4	6	—	—	5	11	710	9,352
Staff dismissal	12	8	1	6	30	28	1	1	44	43	12,097	11,295
Regulations or discipline.	5	3	1	1	6	6	—	1	12	11	1,302	2,006
Aid funds	—	—	—	3	1	—	—	—	1	3	9,850	37,290
Totals	92	90	60	68	170	114	5	4	327	276	135,638	158,528

(*b*) Results of strikes during the period 1852–1889.

The results of strikes during the period 1852 to 1889 have also been classified by the French authorities.

During this period there were 539 strikes among weavers. There were 111 with favourable results for the workers, 119 ending in compromise, 303 failed, and 6 of which the results are unknown. In the same period there were 157 spinners' strikes. Of these 22 were favourable to the workers, 16 concluded with compromise, 118 failed, of 1 the results were unknown.

Out of 109 strikes in metal works 19 were favourable to workers, 23 led to a compromise, 66 failed, and in the case of 1 the results remained unknown.

Out of 88 miners' strikes 11 produced favourable results, 7 ended in compromise, 61 failed, and in 9 cases the results were unknown.

The French statistics attempt no estimate of the cost of strikes.(1)

E.—PREVENTION AND SETTLEMENT OF STRIKES.

1. *Councils of Experts* ("*Conseils de Prud'hommes*").

(i) Nature and uses of the institution of experts (Prud'-hommes).

The peculiarly French institution of industrial "prud-hommes" is taken first in this section, although primarily and directly it is not concerned with the settlement of strikes (collective disputes) or with the fairness or unfairness of wages.(2) There are two good reasons for considering the work of these councils before that of the arbitration and conciliation councils which exist in certain trades, viz.: (1.) Their mode of working first suggested the idea in France of formation of permanent arbitration boards; and (2.) There is no doubt that to the institution of conseils de prud'hommes is mainly due "the comparative tranquillity prevailing "in French industry in this century. It has obviated "many partial strikes by assuring to workmen a com-"petent, rapid, and economic arrangement of disputes "with their employers." The costs, delays, and vexations of legal processes are dispensed with. Two-thirds of the cases which come up for conciliation are settled off-hand, for an expense not exceeding 30 centimes (3*d.*), by judges of the technical matters in question. "Who does not know that it is the repetition "of small unsettled disputes which produces in the "long run that irritation which gives rise to strikes."(3) If the expense for the individual workmen of clearing away his difficulties were greater than it is, he would not resort to the conciliation or arbitration of the prud'hommes.

It seems unfortunate that the institution should be found in a comparatively small number of industries. This will be shown presently in the classification of disputes settled. A further examination of the detailed statistics would show that, while in many disputes as to the mode of carrying out a contract no highly technical knowledge is required of an arbitrator, yet, on occasions, even the conseil de prud'hommes is obliged to call in a special arbitrator, who submits to them a report.

The "experts" are concerned only with interpretations of contracts.

The matter coming before the councils must arise out of interpretation of a contract, written or implied, between the employer and one of his employed, while the amount of the claim in dispute must not rise, where judgment is given, above 8*l.*; over that amount an appeal must be made to the Tribunal of Commerce. The great majority (about 75 per cent.) of the disputes referred to the councils are directly concerned with wages, *i.e.*, as to the exact amount agreed upon, the time and mode of payment, amounts of fines, and so on. Absences from work, defective workmanship, apprenticeship, valuation, piece-work, delay in completing task work account for other cases; of these the first mentioned form about 10 per cent. of the disputes settled.

(ii) Division of functions; "bureau

For the execution of their functions the councils are divided into two sections or committees, viz., the

(1) See p. 136 for strikes in 1892.
(2) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series. No. 159, 1890, p. 2.
(3) De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage, &c., 1893.

particulier," and "bureau général."

committee of mediation or conciliation and the committee of judgment *(bureau particulier ou de conciliation et bureau général ou de jugement)*. "The council was instituted to terminate by conciliation the small disputes "which arise daily, whether between manufacturers "and workpeople or between managers and journeymen or apprentices. It was also authorised at the "same time to pronounce judgment up to an amount "of 60 francs without forms or expenses and without "appeal on the disputes in which conciliation had "failed." It was further instructed to keep an account of the trades and the workpeople under its jurisdiction, and for this purpose might make visits of inspection two or three times a year.(1)

Mr. Condie Stephen says that in several of the cases which he heard in the committee of conciliation, "the "workman who was presiding seemed to be aware, "after a few questions, that the applicant had no cause "for complaint, and told him so, with the effect that "the latter withdrew, with all the appearance of a "man contented at least with having had his say. On "the other hand, employers, when the sum in dispute is "a small one, and they have not a good case, prefer to "pay rather than incur the loss of time incurred by "appearing in court, and this to some extent is a "protection for workmen. In like manner workmen "frequently agree to a compromise proposed in the "bureau of conciliation rather than run the risk of "losing their case by taking it on to the other bureau. "Much good is also done by this system in protecting "apprentices and seeing that they are properly taught "their trade."(2)

(iii.) The committee of conciliation (bureau particulier).

The committee of conciliation consists of two members, one an employer, the other a workman, and, if possible, of different industries. These preside at the sittings alternately month by month. The sittings must be held at least three times a week, from 11 a.m. till 1 p.m., and every endeavour must be made to bring the disputants, who both present their cases, to a friendly understanding. The disputants appear with their witnesses, if they choose to bring them, and without lawyers. The cases are called up in the order set down on the roll and according to the order of date on which notices were sent to the disputants, which is the sitting next after the registration at the secretary's office. The committee has the right to call for documents or industrial products relating to the case. Where the case is not decided in court the committee retires to deliberate for a few minutes in private; the terms then proposed by the president do not in any way prejudice the decision of the committee of judgment if they are not accepted. If they are accepted, the secretary draws up the conditions arrived at, and the president urges their fair acceptance. If the parties are referred to the next meeting of the committee of judgment, full notes are retained by the secretary of the statements made, the terms proposed, and the alleged motives for refusal.

(iv.) The committee of judgment (bureau général).

The public are admitted to the sittings of the committee of judgment, which meets at least once a week. This committee consists of a president (an employer), a vice-president (a workman), who preside alternately, and of two master and two workmen prud'hommes. If either of the parties fail to appear on the day appointed, the case is judged by default, and the judgment becomes operative if the defendant shows no cause to the contrary within three days. "Occasionally a prud'homme "is deputed to inquire on the spot and report to the "board before judgment is delivered."(3) Generally, however, the case is conducted in court by verbal examination under the president. The inquiry may extend over more than one sitting, and be subject to report by a member of the committee. "Counsel are "not admitted, but a minor may be accompanied by a "parent or guardian. . . Order is maintained by "the president, who may have recourse to the services "of the police if necessary."(4) Heads of industrial establishments may be represented by their managers. Witnesses may be called, and are obliged to appear. The court meets in Paris at the Tribunal of Commerce, and in other towns or centres suitable offices are provided for them. The court has power by law to punish disturbances in factories by imprisonment for a period not greater than three days, but this power is not now exercised. Costs, including seizure of goods in default of payment, cannot exceed 43 francs 60 centimes, and will not exceed 5 francs 50 centimes if the decision is promptly carried out. The following bill shows the details :—(5)

Details of costs.

	Fr.	c.
Notice to attend	0	30
Summons	1	80
Judgment	3	20
Notification	3	90
Writ	2	60
Notice of seizure	11	80
Official report of publication	12	00
Verification	8	00
Total	43	60

(v.) Election of the councils of experts.

A council can be created on the request of a local Chamber of Commerce by a State decree which must specify exactly (1) how many prud'hommes are to make up the council, six being the smallest number exclusive of the presidents; (2) over what communes their jurisdiction is to extend; (3) the industries that are to be subject to the council. Under the decree of March 8, 1890 only those trades in which materials undergo transformation can elect these councils;(6) thus manufacturers and builders have the privilege, while merchants and shopkeepers, mines and railways are excluded. The original council at Lyons was composed of nine members, the Lille council consists of 24 members of which eight belong to each of the three groups: textile, metallurgic and miscellaneous industries; of the eight, four are employers, four workmen.(7) The suffrage is given to all masters, heads of workshops and workmen over 25 years who have resided three years in the locality.

According to the Ministerial circular of July 5th, 1853, "employers" include all who convert the materials belonging to them into products or commodities, while "heads of workshops" are those workmen who at their homes, either alone or assisted by one or more companions or apprentices work upon the materials entrusted to them.

The time and place of election is determined by the prefect to whom the list of electors has been previously submitted by the mayors of the Communes concerned. The masters and workmen hold separate meetings to elect their respective "experts"; "workmen" here includes heads of workshops and foremen. Electors are separately convened to attend ballots. The qualifications for experts practically are the same as those of electors, but the expert must in addition be 30 years of age and able to read and write. Women are not yet allowed to vote nor are they eligible for election, but, as will be presently shown, the Chamber of Deputies has passed a Bill, not yet sanctioned by the Senate, by which they would be empowered to take part in the elections.

Half of the council retire every three years, but are re-eligible. Prud'hommes are generally, but not always, paid a salary averaging 4*l.* monthly at the expense of the municipality. The total annual cost to the Paris Municipality is rather over 8,000*l.*(8) The following are some of the items :—

Experts' salaries	£4,992
Clerks and secretaries' salaries	1,364
Offices	1,092
Total	£7,448

(vi.) Abuses in elections.

Certain grave abuses have arisen in connection with elections of the councils under the influence of socialistic committees. It is sufficient to illustrate this by quoting the recent action of the Council of State(9) which nullified the election of a workman who had declared himself to be willing to resign at any time when his general attitude or his decisions did not meet with the approval of his syndicate. The frank attitude recently adopted by the Labour Exchange shows to what lengths the demands of the organised workingmen might go, and the discredit which might easily fall upon this otherwise admirable institution if departures from due observance of impartiality and dignity are not promptly checked. The more violent socialistic organisations "have for some time not only put

(1) De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage, &c., p. 3. *See* Articles 6 and 7 of the law of March 18, 1806.
(2) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, 1892, p. xxii.
(3) Do. do. No. 159, p. 3.
(4) Do. do. No. 268, p. xxi.
(5) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. 116.
(6) Do. do. No. 258, p. 90.
(7) Do. do. No. 159, p. 2.
(8) Do. do. No. 159, p. 4.
(9) See Appendix, p. 137.

" forward a claim to impose a binding mandate upon the " working men prud'hommes, but also even the duty of " voting always in favour of the working man plaintiff. " It is still more extraordinary that certain candidates " have accepted these conditions without scruple and " have been elected. Such facts are the very negation " of justice and call for the intervention of the legis- " lator."(1) There is no doubt that the elections are already manipulated to a considerable extent by municipal wirepullers.

(vii.) Decrease in per-centage of cases settled by conciliation.

It is stated by Mr. Stephen, and it is perhaps a significant fact, that the percentage of cases sent to the committee of judgment through failure of conciliation has shown a tendency to rise. In 1887 there were 41,917 cases brought up for conciliation and of these 15,656 were not conciliated; in 1888 41,117 cases came before the committee for conciliation and 16,219 were not conciliated. In 1889 43,141 cases came up for conciliation and 16,178 were not conciliated.(2) In the council for textile trades in Paris in 1890, 3,112 cases came up for conciliation and 1,124 could not be settled; in 1891 2,841 cases came before the same council and 949 could not be settled; the tables are not complete for 1890 and a comparison cannot be made between all the groups of trades in Paris; safe conclusions cannot be drawn from the separate groups. This will be seen from the proportions in the following Paris figures for 1891.(3)

—	Cases.	Not conciliated.
Metals - - -	2,841	949
Textiles - -	3,858	1,447
Chemicals - -	4,931	1,854
Building - -	12,779	6,127

In the chemical products division, in 1890, only nine per cent. of the cases were brought up for judgment, in 1891, eleven per cent.

There are 116 councils of experts in all. In 1891 these dealt with about 60,000 cases, of which 24,000 were in Paris. Of these 24,000 cases 12,000 were dealt with by the building trades council of experts.

TABLE XVI. showing CASES dealt with in PARIS in 1890 and 1891 by the TEXTILES DIVISION.

Cases dealt with by the Textiles Branch of the Paris Conseil de Prud'hommes.	1890 Number.	1891 Number.
SPECIAL COMMITTEE.		
Cases still to be conciliated on January 1, 1890.	16	26
Number of cases submitted to the special committee.	3,096	3,832
Total - - -	3,112	3,858
Cases conciliated by the special committee.	1,339	1,474
Cases withdrawn by the parties before the committee had decided thereon.	303	554
Cases not conciliated by the special committee and referred to the general committee.	1,124	1,447
Cases not conciliated by the special committee, but not referred to the general committee.	320	356
Cases unsettled on December 31, 1890.	26	27
Total - - -	3,112	3,858

Cases dealt with by the Textile Branch of the Paris Conseil de Prud'hommes.	1890 Number.	1891 Number.
GENERAL COMMITTEE.		
Cases not decided on January 1, 1890.	18	25
Cases referred to the general committee.	1,124	1,422
Total - - -	1,142	1,447
Cases withdrawn before judgment given.	569	793
Cases settled by judgment without appeal.	469	544
Cases settled by judgment but with right of appeal.	79	76
Cases still to be judged on December 31, 1890.	25	34
Total - - -	1,142	1,447
CLASSES OF CASES.		
Apprenticeships - - -	66	98
Discharges - - - -	4,105	1,017
Wages(4) - - - -	1,400	1,974
Spoilt work - - - -	55	32
Certificate books of receipts for weaving.	—	—
Sundry questions - - -	486	737
Total - - -	3,112	3,858

(viii.) Origin of the councils.

The origin of these councils is interesting. The silk manufacturers of Lyons in the last century possessed a *Tribunal Commun* for settling trade disputes which worked within the limits of their guild or corporation. It fell, with the latter, under the law of March 1791. The manufacturers feeling the disadvantages and costliness of the more cumbrous machinery of the Law Courts in settling their disputes, took advantage of a visit from the Emperor in 1805 to petition for an institution similar to their old *Tribunal Commun*, in which men pronounced sentence who understood the trade. It was granted in the law of March 18, 1806, and worked so well that it served as a model for the councils which were rapidly formed at Rouen, Nîmes, Avignon and other towns. The decree of June 11, 1809, defined the procedure for creating future councils. The first council formed in Marseilles was for the soap factories, in 1810. In the beginning of 1892 there were in that town 149 councils for all sorts of trades.(5)

(ix.) Codification of decrees and draft Bill on the councils.

For some time the need of codifying the various decrees relating to the institution has been felt, and a Bill has been adopted (in 1892) by the Chamber(6) which attempts this task and introduces various innovations such as:—(1) the extension of the suffrage to new voters and to women, and the extension of the councils themselves to new occupations not yet admitted (clerks, dressmakers and others), (2) raising the sum beyond which appeal must be made from 8*l.* to 20*l.*, (3) granting indemnities to witnesses for loss of time, and other modifications.

Some apprehension exists as to the results of extension of the suffrage and jurists have uttered warnings on the subject. It is also pointed out by them that it is most important "to guard against any measure " which may have the effect of destroying equality as " between employers and employed, or of making a " privileged and independent court of the councils of " prud'hommes . . . . The appeal from the " councils to the tribunals of commerce might be " given to the civil tribunals of the arrondissement. " Such a reform would reinforce the authority of the " councils . . . and would at the same time be a " recognition of the equality of citizens before the law " . . . . It is difficult to deny that courts com- " posed of permanent magistrates would offer greater

(1) Le Code Civil et la Question, Ouvrière M. Glasson, p. 76.
(2) De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage, &c., p. 5. Cf. also "Journal Officiel." May 6, 1893, p. 2,393.
(3) De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage, &c., pp. 11-22. Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. 104.
(4) Under the term wages should be included not only cases relating to wages properly so-called, but also to settlements of accounts, and questions of notices of leave at end of one week, a fortnight, or month.
(5) Long and detailed tables in the work on conciliation and arbitration cited, show the workings of the various councils in Paris.
(6) *See* Appendix IV., p. 100 for text of the Bill.

" security to litigants and that on the other hand the " councils would redouble their zeal and impartiality " if they felt themselves placed under a more vigilant " supervision."(1)

2. *Voluntary Arbitration and Conciliation Committees in certain Trades.*

(a.) Syndical Provision for conciliation and arbitration.

In the consideration of syndical chambers, it has already been indicated that arbitration and conciliation have for some time been acknowledged as part of their work or interest. M. Lyonnais in his report to the Chamber in 1889(2) pointed out that there were a large number of syndicates, both of employers and employed, which had clauses in their articles of association providing for arbitration or conciliation. The species of arbitration generally attempted by the employers' syndicates can hardly be considered here, as it is generally of a commercial character, and for the arrangement of disputes between employers. The rules of the Syndical Chamber of Butchers in Paris is distinguished among these, however, by the further provision it makes for conciliation with working men.(3)

In 1891 out of 1,212 employers' syndicates, 144 had rules or practice providing in some sort for arbitration and the same might be said of 648 workmen's syndicates out of 1,588.

Among the latter the Syndical Chamber of Working House-painters in Paris, and the Federation of Workers in the Book Trade, have been most honourably distinguished. The National Syndicate of Workers in Artistic Industries have recently made provision for following in the same lines.

(i.) The Syndical Chamber of Working House-painters. Spirit of conciliation.

The syndicate of working house-painters mentioned, which is an old established, steady organisation, has shown a remarkable fidelity to its engagements with the Employers' Chamber, and has on more than one occasion relinquished an opportunity of pressing demands for a rise in rates of wages, in order not to break its peaceful relations with the latter. An unwritten understanding or rather engagement was entered into by them in 1876 that the rates of the town should be loyally held binding for a period of two years and that if a revision was desired, then notice should be given some months in advance. In the spring of 1878 when the press of work for the Exhibition buildings gave to compact bodies of workmen an excellent opportunity of gaining a rise, and certain groups of them came out on strike, the Syndical Chamber of Working House-painters refused to support the movement in any way whatever. At the end of the year, however, both employers and workmen came to an agreement on a rise and the arrangement was peaceably made.

(ii.) The federation of workers in the book trade.

It is the older associations generally which show the greatest anxiety to improve the position of workers by pacific measures. The federation of workers in the book trade is a striking example of this spirit. "It " may be remarked that the trade represented by this " federation is one in which ideas of association are " most highly developed; the Paris syndicate out of " which it grew existed in the form of a mutual aid " society as far back as 1839."(4)

The federation itself was founded in 1881 for the defence of the common interests of the workers all over France and in Algeria.(5) Its statutes from the first asserted the necessity for maintaining the principle of conciliation before striking:—*Article* 6. " When " there is disagreement in any section between em- " ployers and workmen on the matter of revising a " tariff, the sectional committee shall inform the " central committee before ordering a stoppage. No " strike should be declared before all means of con- " ciliation have been exhausted.

" If agreement is recognised as impossible the central " committee will authorise a stoppage if the new tariff " presented has received its assent.

" The central committee may . . . . delegate " one or more of its members to act as mediator, or if " need be to form part of the strike committee. . . .

" Every strike declared without authorisation of the " central committee shall be at the cost of the sectional " committee.

" . . . . the central committee declares that it " will not support any strikes but those stirred up " through attacks on acquired rights and those ap- " proved in advance by it."(6)

Conciliatory work done by the federation:

The journal of the federation, *La Typographie Française*, gives admirable record of the conciliatory work done by its delegates. The first attempt at conciliation was at Nancy in April 1882 and was successful in averting a struggle which might have been long and must have been costly to all concerned. There was then no consistent rate of pay in the various printing establishments at Nancy; the tariffs varied from one firm to another and the highest rate, at the Berger-Levrault establishment, was below that asked for by the workers. The first visit of the federation delegate was to this firm where he obtained a promise of a rise which was nearly equivalent to the demands of the workers. Other firms promised to follow suit, but disaster nearly overtook the arrangement when it was discovered at a general meeting of the workers that two firms had promised to grant the full demands of the workers. " Nevertheless to avoid a strike of which " the result was uncertain, and in consideration of the " small number of members of the syndicate, the " majority agreed to conciliation " and to the compromise that had been agreed upon.(7) Next month at Nîmes the moderating and conciliating influence of the federation delegate was still more strikingly shown. There an unauthorised tariff had been presented, and it became the duty of the delegate to inform the local syndicate that in spite of sympathy in general for the syndicate, yet nothing could justify the federation in supporting it in its "conduct, which was illegal from " the point of view of the statutes and constituted a " grave breach of that discipline without which the " rising federation must fall into anarchy."(8) After considerable efforts the delegate succeeded in putting an end to the strike. In his own words: "Before " leaving, I went to two of the employers to beg them " to take back the workers who had commenced the " strike, and who were without work, and this was " accorded to me without difficulty."

In April 1884, the working typographers at Marseilles, after obtaining a rise in their tariff, with the approval of the federation, started the idea of forming a joint board of arbitration. Since that date the most cordial relations have existed between the employers and workers. Numbers of instances of the good work of the federation might be cited in the succeeding years. In 1890 it seems to have been particularly active. An unfortunate strike took place in September of that year, at Châteauroux, in such haste that when the delegate arrived on the scene it was only to find that the workers had put themselves hopelessly in the wrong. " The employer, taking advantage of the faults com- " mitted by the workers, refused any concession, " and only consented to take back a small number of " the strikers." The delegate, in his report on this affair, drew attention strongly to the need of increased vigilance in the maintenance of discipline, and carrying out of educational propaganda. " It must be confessed," he said, " that an inaccurate idea of rights is more " predominant, and a claim for advances keener, among " the workers, than a desire to conscientiously fulfil " their duties. Too often our comrades imagine that " it is sufficient to belong to a syndical organisation " without performing any further duty, in order that " their right to strike should be recognised, and that " their position should improve as if by magic. It is " our duty to contend without vacillation against this " dangerous error."(10) At the National Congress of book workers in July 1892, M. Keufer, secretary of the federation, declared that "in the greater number of " cases, if the syndical workers knew how to defend the " cause of their members calmly, while frankly asking " for a delay in order to reflect on the proposals of the " employers, conflicts would become much rarer . . " In our view, to persist in combative methods is to " err greatly. Modern industrial organisation demands " a different method in which discussion and diplomacy " are made full use of, even when the employer himself " fixes a very short period for the reply to his pro- " posals."(11)

The National Congress of Book Workers in 1892.

(iii.) The National Syndicate of

It was in May 1892 that the National Syndicate of Workers in Artistic Industries established a permanent

(1) Le Code Civil et la Question ouvrière, pp. 73-74.
(2) Chamber of Deputies, 1889, No. 3,856.
(3) *See* Appendix, p. 122, of Mr. Stephen's Report (Foreign Office, Miscellaneous Series, No. 258).
(4) De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage, &c., pp. 507-9.
(5) *See* above, p. 29.
(6) De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage, &c., p. 510.
(7) *Ib.*, p. 511.
(8) *Ib.*, p. 512.
(9) *Ib.*, p. 513.
(10) *Ib.*, p. 519.
(11) *Ib.*, p. 520.

Workers in Artistic Industries.

council of arbitration and conciliation, for arrangement of difficulties with the employers, in respect of workshop regulations, wages, labour contracts, apprenticeship, and other matters. The council comprises (1) a committee of conciliation, (2) a general bureau. All matters which cannot be arranged by conciliation come before the general bureau, which alone can pronounce an award. In case of a division in this bureau, there is a permanent arbitrator or umpire, whose decision is obligatory and without appeal. There are five employers and five workmen on this general bureau, and the syndicate has chosen M. Lyonnais (arbitrator of the Tribunal of Commerce, member of the Higher Council of Technical Instruction) as permanent arbitrator.

(*b.*) Joint committees:

Joint committees for conciliation have been formed, either by some of the mixed syndicates, or by special arrangement between the separate syndicates.

The joint syndical council for the paper trade was formed by the latter method (on the employers' initiative) in 1873, expressly on the model of the English joint committees.

(i.) The mixed syndical council for the paper trade.

"The mixed syndical council for the paper trade did "not provide for penalties against those who did not "accept its decisions. The moral authority which it "acquired was sufficient. Among its achievements is "that of the adoption of a ten hours' day by the "majority of paper firms in Paris."(1) This council has succeeded in settling a number of affairs which would otherwise have come before the council of experts. There seems to have been no strikes in this industry since the formation of the council. The council is formed of eight employers from the employers' syndicate, and eight members of the working men and working women's syndicate. Its affairs are managed by a president and a secretary, the one elected from among the employers, the other from the workmen, both for the year. Regular meetings are held, but in case of any conflict or disagreement between employers and employed, it is the duty of the council to hold special meetings and make every effort to arrange for an understanding. In reply to an inquiry by the *Office du Travail* the president of this council wrote in January, 1892, that the institution had produced the best possible results, that its chief *rôle* was preventive, and that this *rôle* had been admirably fulfilled, but that also it had done a good deal in the way of spreading special trade information amongst those whose interests it represented. The president added that much was due to the thoroughly democratic spirit which had always animated the employers' syndicate. "We invite the workmen "to join in our corporative festivals to criticise the works "of apprentices done in our technical school; we set "ourselves to find employment for them to help their "mutual aid fund, &c., and these efforts bring their "own fruits."(2) This institution might very well be counted amongst the special employers' institutions (*œuvres patronales*) which have done so much in France to maintain good feeling and understanding in certain industrial establishments.

(ii.) Joint committee of typographers at Rouen.

A similar joint committee exists among the typographers at Rouen, which is composed of three employers and three workmen, and is presided over alternately by an employer and an employed. It was provisionally founded in 1877, having been for some years the aim, and almost exclusive pre-occupation, of the syndicate of working typographers. However, for five years its services were never actively required. In 1882 it satisfactorily arranged for an increase in the tariff which ruled down to the beginning of last year. Every year the two syndicates elect their members for the committee, exchange expressions of their mutual desire of concord, and that is all. "All members of "the syndicates respect the tariff, and no dispute has "arisen amongst them. Neither the council of experts "nor the committee have held sittings at their "instance."(3)

(iii.) Joint arbitration committees for bleachers and laundry workers.

Since the end of 1891 arbitration committees founded by the joint efforts of the syndicates of employers and employed in bleach houses and laundries have been working satisfactorily for the Department of the Seine (Paris), and at Boulogne. In the latter town only one award on a dispute was made a subject of appeal in the course of a year. This was brought before the local conseil de prud'hommes and the award was confirmed. The "Journal des Blanchisseurs et Buandiers" congratulated the committee for the Seine last October on the way in which "it had fulfilled its delicate functions, "with the greatest dignity, justice, and urbanity."(4)

(1) *Ib.*, p. 504.
(2) *Ib.*, p. 505.
(3) *Ib.*, p. 507.

3. *The New Law of Arbitration.*

(*a.*) Law of December 27, 1892.

The law of December 27, 1892, providing for conciliation and arbitration in collective disputes between employers and workmen,(5) with the circular of the Minister of Commerce addressed to the prefects and the circular of the Minister of Justice to the attorneys-general (*Procureurs Généraux*) on the principles for its application, were sent out, in the end of February 1893, to all the registered syndicates in the country through the *Office du Travail*. The letters to the secretaries of the syndicates enclosing these documents drew attention to the fact that in its main idea the new law was only an extension of the principle of the law of March 21, 1884.

Official letter to syndicates thereon.

"If, according to the express intention of the legislator, the new text is an instrument of pacification at the disposal of every labourer, whether he forms a part or not of a syndical group, it is no less certain that its efficacy can only be secured by the active co-operation of industrial organisations animated by the spirit of concord and loyalty which alone can insure the execution of conventions which are freely entered into.(6)"

It is impossible as yet to indicate what effect this new law may have in the future. Until quite recently no report of any case of its application has been received.(7)

Character of the law.

It attempts a compromise between a purely voluntary or permissive measure and a measure worked by State initiative. It does not, in the meantime at least, organise permanent boards, but seeks to prevent industrial crises. It offers help, but does not impose it. Full provision is made for what may be called the machinery of arbitration at the least possible effort and cost to the disputants.(8) If after the expiration of a certain time no initiative is taken by the disputants in the direction of conciliation or arbitration the duty devolves upon the justice of the peace of taking every possible or prudent step to induce the parties to submit their case to the machinery offered by the law.(9) Women are expressly admitted as delegates with a view to conciliation.

If conciliation is resorted to, the justice of the peace is at the disposal of the committee as president of the debate. If conciliation is without effect the justice of the peace organises an arbitration. If an award is pronounced it is sent to the justice of the peace. But no provision is attempted for the cases when arbitration is either refused by both parties or when an award is repudiated.(10)

(*b.*) The Ministerial circular to the prefects.

The Ministerial circular to the prefects points out that much can be done locally by the representatives of the State who may intervene as mediator with the offer of official arbitration when conflicts in industry arise. Whilst it remains the first duty of the prefect to maintain public order and to assure, above every thing, strict freedom of labour, the Minister sees no reason why the prefect should not successfully insist on holding up the superiority of the procedure offered by the law

(4) *Ib.*, p. 524.
(5) For translation of the text of the law, *see* Appendix V., p. 104.
(6) De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage, &c., p. 602.
(7) Statistics have been supplied by the Office du Travail for the months January to September inclusive, which show the number of attempted applications of the law and the results. Out of 90 cases, 40 were initiated by the justices of the peace, 43 by the workmen, 5 by employers, and 2 by mutual agreement of the disputing parties to resort to the law. In 54 cases committees of conciliation were formed under the provisions of the law; 38 of these led to conciliation, 21 being the subject of compromise between the disputants. In 17 cases unconciliated disputes were referred to arbitration under the further provisions of the law, but objections were raised to this six times by employers, three times by employed, and twice by both, while on one occasion an arbitrator gave up his task. In 16 cases strikes were continued after failure of conciliation, but 10 of these were eventually compromised. On the whole the figures seem to show that the employers are less anxious to apply the law than the employed. The only sanction attached to the law is a public posting up at the *mairie* of the conditions of the refusal to conciliate, together with the name of the person or persons refusing. Very little notice of the cases just summarised has appeared in the public press, probably because the strikes leading to them have been the least prominent and noisy. In the department of the Seine the justice of the peace has no authority to intervene, and thus the law has not been applied. Possibly there might have been more applications in the provinces if the law had not depended so much upon officers of the State liable to be removed at pleasure. Arbitration is easier before the justice of the peace than the prefect: workmen and employers are too dependent on the prefect to readily come to harmony in his presence. A report of a meeting of miners on strike in the Pas de Calais which appeared in the "Temps" for September 22, shows that there is a tendency among workmen to seek to apply arbitration outside the machinery provided by the law.—G.D. 1/11/93.
(8) *See* especially Articles 2-4, and 13.
(9) *See* Article 10.
(10) *See* Articles 5, 7, 8, 9.

over those methods formerly occasionally adopted. The whole of this circular forms an authoritative commentary on the law.(1)

(c.) Circular to the Procureurs Généraux by the Minister of Justice.

The circular addressed to the Attorneys-General (*Procureurs Généraux*) by M. Bourgeois, Keeper of the Seals and Minister of Justice, forms a commentary upon the "new attributes with which it invests the justices "of the peace, which are as important as they are "delicate." The choice of an authorised mediator and the organisation of a simple procedure have been the prevailing idea of the legislator who has held that the former should be a person invested with the consideration and weight attaching to a servant of the public and at the same time equally removed from political struggles and industrial quarrels.

Conciliation.

The justice of the peace has nothing to do with determination of the mode of nomination of the representatives of the disputing parties on the committee of conciliation. The law purposely abstains from regulating this and merely lays down that the representatives must be chosen from among the interested parties. The justice of the peace presents the neutral ground on which the disputants may meet. When the committee of conciliation is formed he is not called upon to give decisions as to the conflicting claims before him "and "far from having a preponderant voice in the dis- "cussion he has not even a deliberative voice . . . . . "he can only preside if the interested parties express "a desire for it."

Arbitration.

It is hoped that free discussion of the difficulties will often lead to a complete understanding, but if not the recourse to arbitration can be by a rapid and simple procedure.(2) "There is no need to add that the "necessity of accepting the arbitration proposed by "the magistrate is imposed upon no one, and that "both parties have entire liberty to refuse the invita- "tion which is addressed to them."(3) If it is accepted and recourse eventually has to be made to an umpire, a new element of impartiality is introduced by the law. In case the justice of the peace may have been influenced in any way by the intercourse he has had with the disputants, the choice of the umpire is relegated to the president of the civil tribunal.

The umpire.

"It would be impossible to guard the choice of the new arbitrator with better guarantees. This magistrate must bear in mind, however, that the sanction of the award is of a purely moral order, that it is worth nothing but just so far as the arbitrators have secured the confidence of the interested parties, and that it is of importance to appoint a man who can rest upon an indisputable authority through his technical knowledge, his disinterestedness and his known impartiality between employed and employers."(4)

The Minister of Justice declares in this circular his inability to define the occasions when the justice of the peace should take up his power of initiating the operation of the law in case of strike. Only their own tact and experience can teach them when to step in and when to refrain. Generally speaking his assistance should be promptly offered. If a strike extends over several *cantons*(5) the several justices of the peace should take counsel together.

As for provision of sanctions to support decisions of arbitrators, the law attempts nothing beyond an appeal to public opinion through careful adoption of due publicity and formality of procedure. It assures "the "authenticity and preservation of resolutions adopted "by the committees of conciliation and of arbitrators' "awards in ordering that they shall be deposited at "the office of the justice of the peace." Full confidence is expressed in the verdicts of public opinion, "which will show itself justly severe on a strike with- "out motive or an unjustifiable resistance to these "councils for reconciliation and pacification." Throughout the proceedings the justice of the peace will have full scope for serving the "cause of concord and social harmony."(6)

(1) *See* Appendix VI., p. 105, for a summary of the circular.
(2) Articles 7, 8, and 9.
(3) De la Conciliation de l'Arbitrage, p. 597.
(4) *Ib.*, p. 599.
(5) A *Canton* is a territorial district including generally several communes and forming a subdivision of the *arrondissement*; there are some large towns or communes which include several *cantons*. The *canton* is the province of the *juge de paix*; it also serves as the basis for elections to the *Conseil Général* and the *conseil d'arrondissement* (*See* M. Block. Dictionnaire de l'Administration Française).
(6) De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage, p. 601.

4. *Employers' Institutions.*

(a.) An important indirect remedy.

As has already been indicated,(7) the most important remedy for industrial conflicts is held by many of the more prominent social reformers to be an indirect one, namely, the development of the special institutions of employers (*œuvres patronales*), which formed the subject of a special report by M. Cheysson to the Social Economy group of the International Exhibition of 1889. Among the recipients of medals for these institutions France came most prominently forward, Belgium standing next in the list of honour among European nations. In detail the institutions may be resolved into more or less fully developed schemes of profit sharing on the one hand, or improved conditions of labour and development of provident schemes on the other, and, accordingly, the matter lends itself more conveniently for treatment under these special heads in other parts of the Report.(8) M. Leon Say, in his summary of the report presented on the subject to the Social Economy group, says:—

"Everywhere these efforts of the employers have met with happy results. . . It is noteworthy that from the point of view of what may be called their social or economic method not one of these establishments is absolutely similar to another. . . The one thing in common among them is the spirit of devotion. If the reporter has been able to draw up an order of method among them, it is not on account of the degree in which this spirit is manifested, but rather it is based on the actual intellectual and moral progress appreciable amongst these harmonised working populations, who have found in the satisfaction of their sentiment of dignity, and in the unity of their interests with those of their chiefs, reasons more or less consciously adopted for striving to maintain social peace. If French industry were represented in its entirety by the pictures which M. Cheysson has laid before us, one would derive from them a consoling impression; but, although the number of employers and workmen which appear in them is very great, it is far from representing the whole of the working population. . . What we can affirm with confidence is that the example is good, and that it may be imitated in diverse ways . . in the great majority of cases, because the industrial establishments which are still backward in this order of ideas may make a choice between many models, and select that one which is most suited to its particular industrial situation and the dominant spirit of its working population."(9)

The order of merit drawn up by the jury was based upon a classification of 12 distinct meritorious features, as follows:—

1. Institutions providing against improvidence.
2. „ remedying vice.
3. „ improving the intellectual and moral condition.
4. Organisation of labour and wages tending to raise the condition of the worker.
5. Subventions tending to render the condition of the labourer stable.
6. Habits of saving.
7. Harmony between workers at the same piece of work.
8. Permanent good relationship between workers at the same work.
9. Alliance between agricultural and manufacturing undertakings.
10. Possession of dwellings by workpeople, or permanence of tenancy.
11. Respect shown for the character of young girls.
12. Respect shown for the character of the mother of the family.(10)

(b.) National sentiment in favour of personal relations.

It is the spontaneous character of the institutions inquired into under these heads which has chiefly struck students of them. Hitherto in France the national sentiment at its best has been in favour of intimate and long continued relations between employers and employed, and it is the survival of this sentiment which has retarded the independent growth of association amongst workmen in so many districts. "Instead of

(7) *See* page 23 above.
(8) Division II., pp. 58-9, 73; Division III., pp. 76-9.
(9) Rapports du Jury International, Groupe de l'Economie Sociale, Part I., Paris, 1891, p. cxxxvi.
(10) *Ib.*, Part II., p. 361.

" relying upon his association, as in England, or upon " the State, as in Germany, thus curtailing his indi- " vidual liberty," the French workman depends upon long contracts (*des rapports à long terme*) in which " the master does not consider himself as no longer " concerned with his workman when he has paid " him for his fortnight or month. He considers that " he has duties towards him, which a moral law, in " default of a human law, imposes on those whom " Le Play has so justly called 'social authorities.' I " have a profound conviction that it would be to do an " ill service to miners to oblige their employers to " exchange the French system, dependent on liberality " and goodwill, for the authoritative roughness of the " German or the pitiless independence of the Anglo- " Saxon."(1)

DIVISION II.

CONDITIONS OF LABOUR IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES.

(1.) Introduction: Laws regulating the Conditions of Labour in Industrial Establishments.

(1.) Laws before November 2, 1892.

Until the passing of the law of November 2nd, 1892, regulation of the conditions of labour in the various industries in France, corresponding to the regulation in England by Factory Acts, was effected under the laws of September 9th, 1848, and of May 19th, 1874, supplemented (1) by an Amendment Act of February 16th, 1883, providing for inspection and local commissions, and (2) by administrative or governmental orders or regulations (*réglements d'administration publique*) issued in the form of a decree (*décret*), and (3) by ministerial circulars and directions *instructions ministérielles*.(2) These last (2) and (3) regulate details, of which the principles are to be found in the laws. Among the most important of the decrees may be mentioned those of May 17th, 1851, May 13th, 1875, March 2nd, 1877, October 31st, 1882, April 3rd, 1889, July 10th, 1890.

Inspection.

For the purpose of administration of the laws of 1848 and 1874 with their supplementary orders France was mapped out in 21 districts, with an independent central inspector for each. The whole service of inspection was under the control of the *Commission supérieur du Travail dans l'Industrie*. In nine districts the one inspector sufficed, in the rest he was assisted by one, two, or more sub-inspectors. The first district (Seine department) was sub-divided into 15 sections, each having two inspectors, one a man the other a woman; these were subordinate to the principal inspector, who was in turn subordinate to the district inspector. The service of inspection in this district was further provided for by 12 deputy-inspectors, six men, six women. The second district (including Seine-et-Oise, Seine-et-Marne, Eure-et-Loire) alone approached to the first in number of officers, and had 16 departmental inspectors under the district inspector. No women are to be found acting as inspectors except in the Seine department.

(2.) Law of September 9th.

The law of September 9th, 1848, applies only to adults. It fixes the duration of the day's labour (*travail effectif*) at 12 hours in the 24, irrespective of interruptions and rest, and applies to all works, factories, workshops, and mills, as well as in the smaller manufactures where not less than 20 work-people are employed; it does not apply to small work-rooms, notably those of sempstresses, nor to family workshops. Where it applies it applies equally to piece-work and to time work. In all cases it is the employer and not the employed who is held responsible for infringement of the law. Certain exceptions are provided for by Article 2 of the law. Thus the decree of April 3rd, 1889, defines certain exceptional cases in certain industries, and the decree of May 17th, 1851, permits absolute exceptions in one or two industries, *e.g.*, dyeing and trimming works. The report of the inspector of the ninth district for 1891 drew attention to the fact that advantage of this decree was taken by certain masters, who employed young persons under 16 years of age in such a way as to escape the provisions of the law of 1874. Nearly all the district inspectors in 1892 agreed in declaring that adult labour rarely exceeded 12 hours a day, and often fell considerably below it. In the second district, for example, it was found that there was a marked tendency for the hours not to exceed 10. In the 12th district the average day's work was 10 hours 6 minutes. In the 21st district the labour of adults rarely exceeded 10 hours, except where women and children were employed, and 10 hours tended to reach the legal limit. As M. Waddington pointed out in the introductory letter to the report quoted, "wherever the limit is attained or " sometimes even exceeded it is ordinarily in those " works which employ chiefly women, children, and " young girls. The abuse is so much the greater, and " ought to be severely repressed. The new law, which " will reduce the hours of labour for women and " children, will furnish the remedy for this deplorable " state of affairs."(3)

Exceptions to the application of the law.

One cause of past infringements of the law was pointed out by M. Laporte, inspector for the Seine district. A decree of April 9th, 1889, exempted those works which were executed under order of the Government from the provisions of the law in the interests of security and defence of the country. Notice was given to the inspector by a workmen's syndicate of a firm which worked overtime in order to carry out a contract for bicycles for the army. The inspector was powerless to regulate this and similar cases in face of the decree, until a Ministerial circular of October 28th, 1891, gave inspectors the right to demand of manufacturers a copy of the contract made by them with the Ministers of War and the Marine. Any manufacturer refusing to produce it was then held as guilty of infringing the law of 1848.

Sir Joseph Crowe wrote in 1891(4) that the law relative to the application of the law of September 9th, 1848, and which instituted a system of inspection " only " manifested more clearly than before the defects of the " then existing system. The law which was intended " to establish a working day of 12 hours had been from " the first limited in its application, including factories " and works, but excluding workshops and rooms of " all kinds, and excluding likewise a vast number of " establishments to which special exemptions were " given." "It is the expressed opinion of inspectors " that no serious control is likely to be enforced until " manufacturers and employers are forced to advertise " in their working places details of attendance and " departure of all hands, and Parliament might be " asked, they also think, to curtail the list of excep- " tions set forth in the decrees of 1851 and 1885."(5)

(3.) Law of May 19th, 1874.

The law of May 19th, 1874, regulated the labour of women and children until November 1892. Although it is thus superseded in many ways by a law considered to be "more in harmony with the legitimate aspirations " of working women."(6) it has still been sufficiently recently in operation to lend interest to estimates of the changes effected by it.

For the text of the law and a commentary thereon, together with its supplementary decrees, circulars, and judicial decisions, reference must be made to the authoritative text book of M. Bouquet, Secretary of the Higher Commission of Labour.(7)

Until the passing of this law no distinction was made between men and women, but from May 19th, 1874, while "any adult male after the age of 16 might engage " in any labour in mines, manufactures, and works by " day or by night," women were forbidden to work at night in manufactures and works or on Sundays(8) or legal holidays (day or night) until they had reached the age of 21 years; and they were forbidden to work under any conditions or at any age in mines, open or underground, and quarries. While this statute protected women in some ways, it left them entirely unprotected in others. Evidence given before a Parliamentary Commission appointed to inquire into the labour of

(1) Organisation of Labour in Mines, M. Ledoux, p. 69.
(2) Rapport sur l'Application de la Loi du 19 May, 1874, &c., pendant l'année 1891. Presenté à M. le Président de la Republique par MM. les membres de la Commission supérieure du Travail dans l'Industrie, p. 5.
(3) Same report, p. 9.
(4) F.O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 213, p. 3.
(5) *Ib.*, p. 4.
(6) French Inspectors' Report cited, p. 12.
(7) Le Travail des enfants et des filles mineures dans l'Industrie. L. Bouquet, Paris, Berger-Levrault-et-Cie, 1885.
The Commentary by the same author (1893) on the new law of November 2, 1892, was received as this report was going to press.—G.D.
(8) The distinction between Sundays and week days was abolished by Statute in 1885.

women and children in 1890(1) showed that women were employed for unlimited hours in shops and workrooms. Sempstresses in general were omitted from the provisions of this law as of the earlier law of 1848.

Night work.

Night work by women was common and of a permanent nature up to the time of promulgation of the law of November 2nd, 1892, in the textile factories in the North of France and the Vosges and Tarn departments. "In some spinneries where the day shift is carried on "by men, the night shift is taken by their wives, so "that some hours of the day may be selected during "which the mother of a family can attend to her home "and belongings."

Exceptions to the regulation of child labour.

Exceptions to the regulation of child labour were similarly to be found in the law of 1874. While it forbade employment of children under 10 years in factories, works, mines, or yards, it gave full liberty to parents to dispose of their children's labour at home, and did not interfere with their employment as messengers or in stores, shops, or various branches of agriculture. It was specially concerned to regulate their contact with machinery and harmful or dangerous processes in large industries.

(4.) Law of November 2nd, 1892.

The law of November 2nd, 1892, regulating the labour of women as well as of children and young girls in industrial establishments(2) is now in force, and the first reports of inspectors on its operations will be awaited with interest. Already accounts of its effects in various ways have appeared. Strikes have been reported from various quarters as caused by its application. Mr. Ottley, Vice-Consul at Lyons, says,(3) it "affects "considerably the silk spinning and throwing indus- "tries, where the rule existed to pay daily wages. "Children of either sex under 16 years of age are pro- "hibited from working more than 10 hours a day; "from 16 to 18 years, 11 hours; but the maximum for "the week is 60 hours. Over 18 years of age women "may work 11 hours a day. It seems probable that "60 hours a week will become the rule. In certain ". . . season trades leave will be given to exceed "these regulations with a maximum of 12 hours a day "during 60 days in the year, and a deputation from "Lyons has demanded the application of this clause to "this district."

Subjects dealt with by the law.

The law is in nine sections, which are as follows:—

I. Dealing with age of admission to factories and length of the day's work.
II. Dealing with night work and the weekly day of rest.
III. Regulating underground labour.
IV. Providing for supervision and care of children employed in industry.
V. Regulating sanitation, protection of machinery, and providing for notification of accidents.
VI. Extending the service of inspection provided for under earlier laws.
VII. Defining the constitution and functions of the Higher Commission of Labour, and of departmental Employers' Committees.
VIII. Providing for fines and the applications of Article 463 of the Penal Code.
IX. Specially providing for the issue of administrative orders, after consultation with the Higher Commission and the Consultative Committee of Arts and Manufactures, and other matters connected with application of the law.(4)

The law applies to the work of children, young girls, and women in works, factories, mines, and allied industrial works, quarries, yards, workshops of every kind, public or private.

The age of admission to the above industrial undertakings is 13. No child may be admitted below 13 unless he or she has completed the twelfth year, and is supplied with certificates (1) of primary studies, (2) of physical fitness.

No child below 18, and no women or young girls of any age may be employed in the above specified industries at night, *i.e.*, between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m. Certain exceptions to this rule are to be provided for by administrative orders; similarly the provision for a weekly holiday and the *jours de fêtes* may be modified in application.

By Article 8, only the prefects of the departments, or in Paris the Minister of Public Instruction, may give permission for the employment of children under 13 in public performances at theatres or *cafés-concerts*.

(1) Report with Appendix presented in the name of the Commission by M. Waddington, No. 649, Chambre des Députés, 1890.
(2) For the text *see* Appendix VII., p. 106.
(3) F.O. Report. Annual Series, 1,182, p. 13.
(4) See Appendix for text of the law, 106.

The prohibition of employment of women and girls underground in mines or quarries to be found in Article 7 of the law of 1874 is repeated in Article 9 of the present law. The age of boy labour in mines is raised from 12 to 13. Special regulations have been added to the law in regard to (1) employment of boy labour in mines, (2) employment of women and children in certain industries.(5)

It seems possible that this law regulating women's labour may act in effect as a law regulating men's labour; when the factories are deserted at the end of eleven hours by the women it will be impossible to continue the work of the men in the majority of cases. The following regulations have been issued by a group of manufacturers in Lille:—"1. Actual hours of work "(*travail effectif*) are reduced to eleven. 2. From the "moment when the machinery begins to work the men "and women should be at work in their respective "places from which they should not move until the "machinery stops. 3. Every worker who conforms "entirely to the foregoing regulation and who has not "missed work during a fortnight will receive the same "daily wage as for twelve hours.(6)

(5.) Law regulating hygiene and safety in industrial establishments, of June 12th, 1893.

To the above-mentioned laws must be added one promulgated on June 12th, 1893, which regulates matters affecting the health and safety of workers in factories and workshops.(7) It applies to factories, yards, works, or workshops, excepting only those family workshops where no steam or mechanical power is used, or dangerous occupations are carried on. It provides for the fencing of dangerous parts of machinery, and the closing of bridges, trap doors, and openings. Where machinery, bridges, trap doors, &c., are used in theatres, circuses, and shops, the law applies as it does to ordinary industrial establishments. The Consultative Committee of Public Hygiene may be called upon under this law to give advice relative to the framing of regulations concerning sanitation, ventilation, lighting, dust, noxious vapours, &c. The law is to be administered (applying from the third month after the date of promulgation) by the inspectors provided for administration of the laws above referred to. Provision is made for compulsory notification of all accidents to workers in the establishments included under the law. Fines for a first offence range from 5 francs to 15 francs and for repeated offences may rise to 200 francs. Offenders are to be prosecuted before the ordinary police courts (*tribunal de simple police*). Those who put obstacles in the way of performance by an inspector of his duties may be fined from 500 to 1,000 francs.

(II.)—(*a.*) Conditions in Mines, Quarries, and Metallurgic Trades.

(i.) Report of the Royal Commission on Mining Royalties.

In their evidence before the Royal Commission on Mining Royalties (8) the French witnesses MM. Duval and Aguillon pointed out the effect of foreign competition and strikes in France (9) on production, and apparent absence of effect upon wages and certain other conditions of labour in French mines. In spite of continued importation of coal from England and Germany, which increased during strike periods, miners' wages have steadily tended to rise on the whole; in some parts they have risen higher than in others and local differences in conditions of production seem to a certain extent accountable for this, but local custom has ceased to have any effect on the fixing of actual wages since transport has been cheapened.(10) These witnesses had no doubt that the French mining system, based on State concessions, had tended to a development of the mineral industry in France.(11) But the position of the coalfields and the daily increased facilities for transport had done more. "The develop- "ment began about 1840, when the coalfields of the "Pas-de-Calais were discovered. That has given a "great impulse to the industries in that district, and "now all those departments are the most inhabited, "and have a larger industry developing, especially, for "instance, the sugar industry, which has spread on a "very large scale in the north of France. If they had "not had coal in sufficient quantity, and cheap enough, "and of good quality, that would have been impossible. ". . . The expansion of industry in all those "districts of course has benefited all landowners and "agriculturists also."(12) This expansion of industry

(5) See Appendix VIII., p. 108, for text of decrees.
(6) Cf. "La Réforme Sociale," January 16, 1893, p. 165.
(7) For text of the law *see* Appendix IX., p. 110.
(8) Fourth Report, 1893.
(9) *Ib.*, questions 19,332-41.
(10) *Ib.*, questions 19,336-41; 19,375-6; 19,390-7.
(11) *Ib.*, questions 19,408-13.
(12) *Ib.*, questions 19,413-4.

MAP OF FRANCE.

Shewing important towns & chief mining departments.

KEY TO DEPARTMENTS.

1. Ain
2. Aisne
3. Allier
4. Alpes (Basses)
5. " " (Hautes)
6. " " (Maritimes)
7. Ardèche
8. Ardennes
9. Ariège
10. Aube
11. Aude
12. Aveyron
13. Bouches-du-Rhône
14. Calvados
15. Cantal
16. Charente
17. " " Inf^re
18. Cher
19. Corrèze
20. Corse
21. Côtes d'Or
22. Côtes du Nord
23. Creuse
24. Dordogne
25. Doubs
26. Drôme
27. Eure
28. Eure et Loire
29. Finisterre
30. Gard
31. Garonne (Haute)
32. Gers
33. Gironde
34. Hérault
35. Ille et Vilaine
36. Indre
37. Indre et Loire
38. Isère
39. Jura
40. Landes
41. Loire-et Cher
42. Loire
43. Loire (Haute)

Departments in which more than 1000 men are employed in the mining industry. (1889).

above 50,000.

30,000 to 50,000.

10,000 to 30,000.

1,000 to 10,000.

Towns of France with more than 20,000 inhabitants (1886).

- Paris.
- More than 100,000.
- " " 50,000.
- " " 20,000.

KEY TO DEPARTMENTS

44. Loire Inférieure.
45. Loiret.
46. Lot.
47. Lot-et-Garonne.
48. Lozère.
49. Maine-et-Loire
50. Manche.
51. Marne.
52. Marne (Haute)
53. Mayenne.
54. Meurthe-et-Moselle
55. Meuse.
56. Morbihan.
57. Nièvre.
58. Nord.
59. Oise.
60. Orne.
61. Pas de Calais.
62. Puy de Dôme.
63. Pyrénées (Basses)
64. " " (Hautes).
65. " " Orientales.
66. Rhône.
67. Saône (Haute).
68. Saône et Loire.
69. Sarthe.
70. Savoie.
71. " Haute
72. Seine.
73. Seine Inférieure.
74. Seine-et-Marne
75. Seine-et-Oise
76. Sèvres (Deux).
77. Somme.
78. Tarn.
79. Tarn-et-Garonne.
80. Var.
81. Vaucluse.
82. Vendée.
83. Vienne.
84. Vienne (Haute)
85. Vosges.
86. Yonne.

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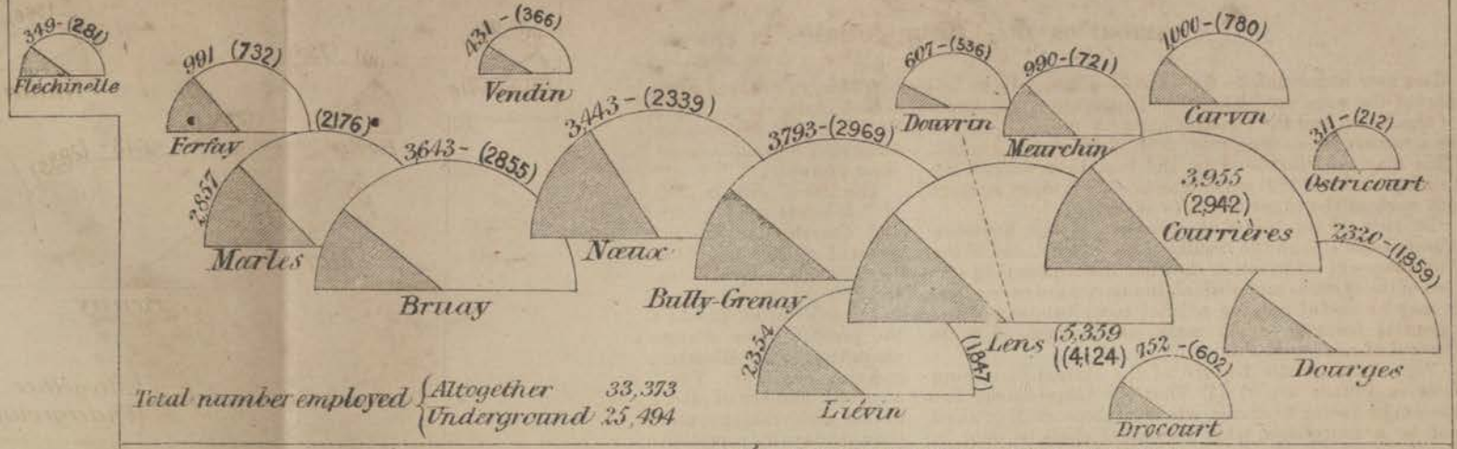
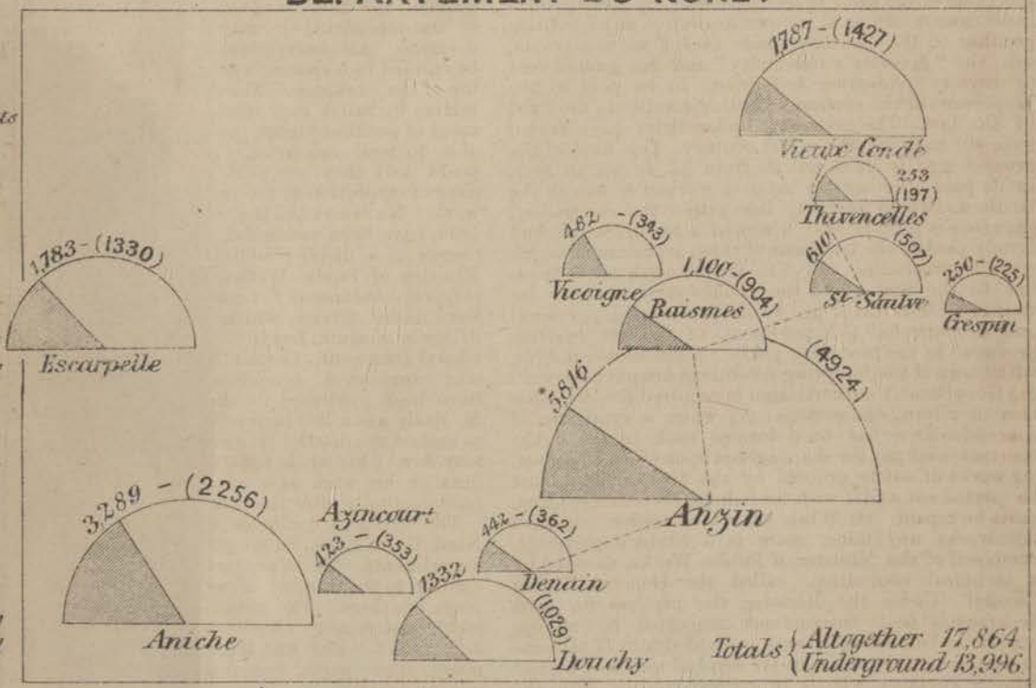
Prepared in the office of the Royal Commission on Labour from Statistics given in Levasseur's Population Française and the Statistique Minérale 1890.

Diagram A.

DÉPARTEMENT DU PAS-DE-CALAIS.



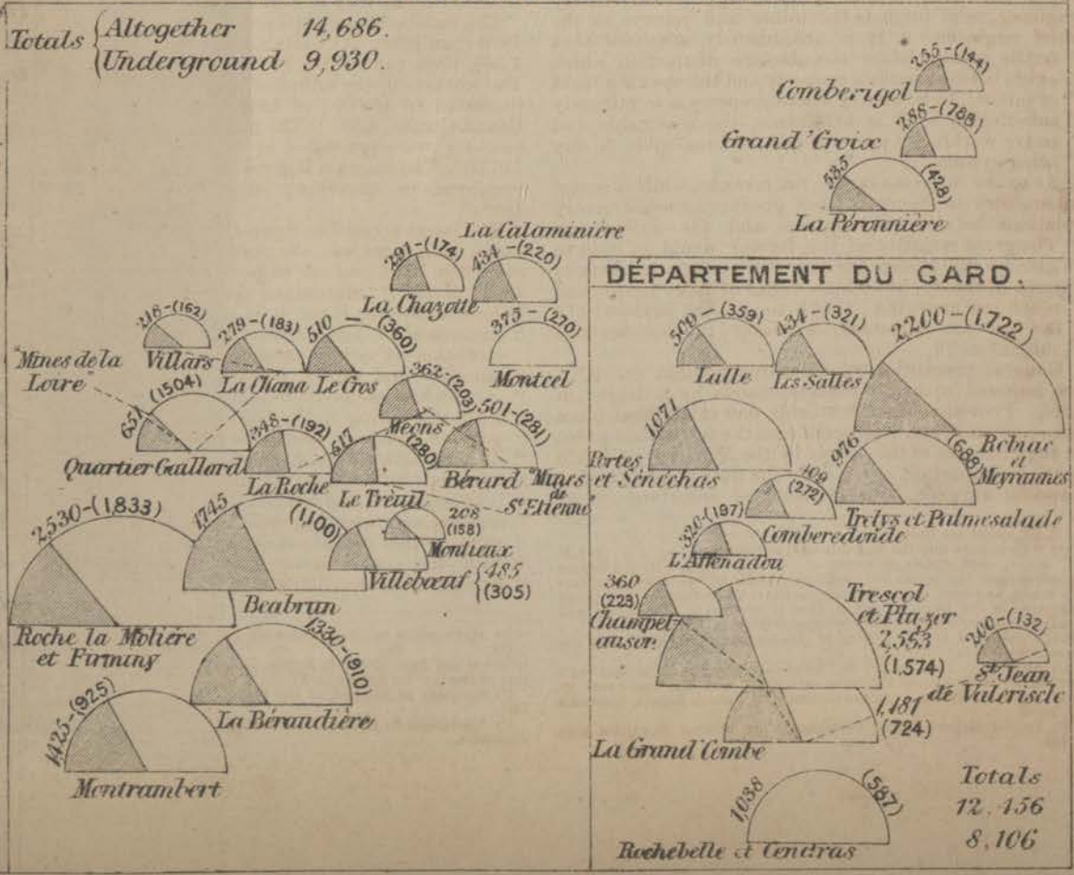
DÉPARTEMENT DU NORD.



DIAGRAMS SHEWING numbers of Workmen Employed in MINES in the Chief Mining Departments in 1889.

1. The Semicircles give the relative size of the mines according to numbers employed
2. The shaded portions of the semicircles shew the relative number of workmen employed overground about the Mines.
3. The figures in brackets give the number of underground Miners; the other figures shew the total numbers employed in & about the Mines
4. The Concessions belonging to one Company are joined by dotted lines.

DÉPARTEMENT DE LA LOIRE.



The other Departments with important Mining Industries are:

	Employed Underground	Employed Total
Saône et Loire	5776	8582
Aveyron	3209	5070
Allier	2954	4402
Meurthe et Moselle	2284	3262
Bouches du Rhône	1800	2452
Tarn	1474	2383
Hérault	1126	1827
Puy de Dôme	1064	1610
Isère	1133	1576
Nièvre	843	1333
Creuse	657	1256

DÉPARTEMENT DU GARD.

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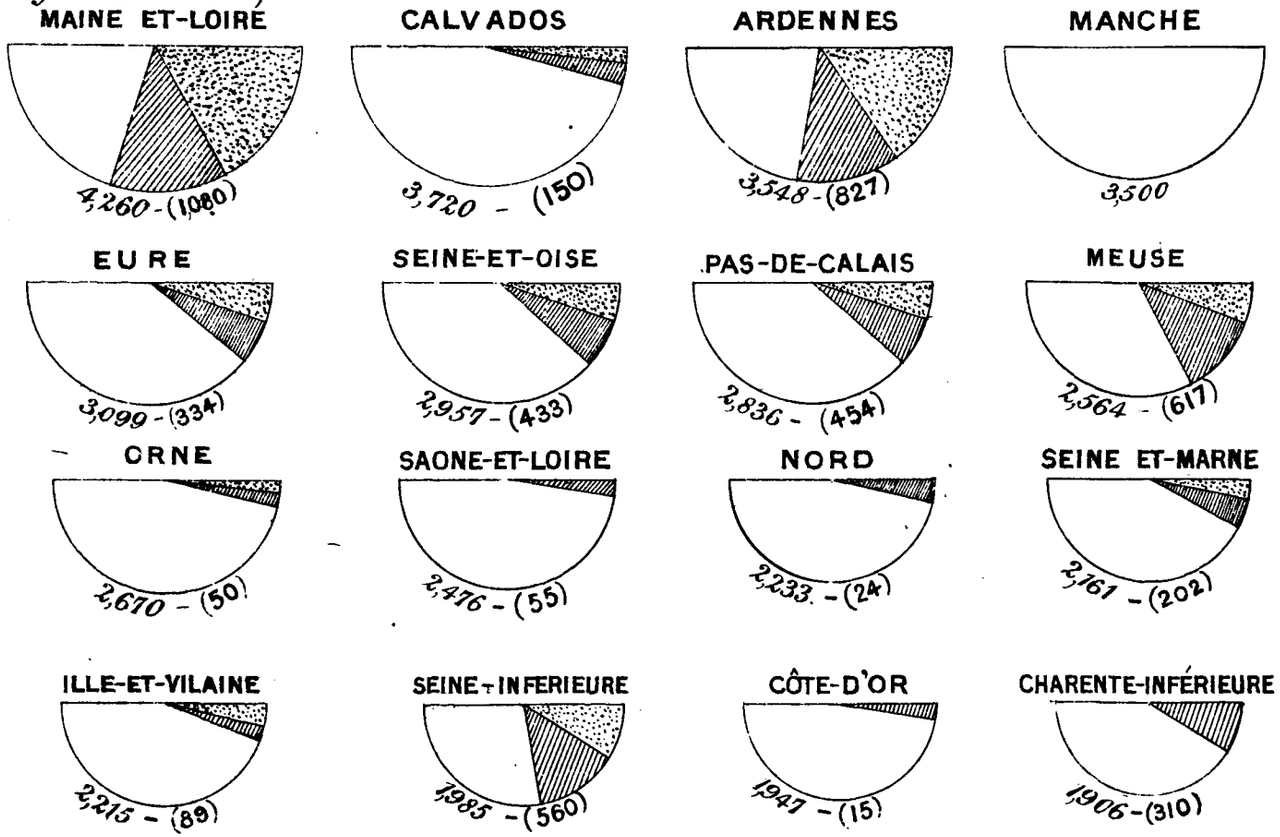
Diagram B.

***DIAGRAMS** shewing numbers employed in Quarries in the Chief Quarrying Departments. (The white parts of the disc represent, open Quarries, the others underground. The dots refer to Workers at the Surface: the Shading to Workers below the Surface. The unbracketed numbers shew totals employed, the bracketed refer to underground workers.)*



Judd & Co Ltd, Lith. 63, Carter Lane, M.98.5322.

offers new opportunities for increased demands on the part of the wage paid labourer. In the mining districts of the North and the Pas-de-Calais no one is obliged to be a miner, for anyone may find work above ground. This may be illustrated by the fact that during the mining strike of 1891 in the Pas-de-Calais many strikers got work at the sugar factories at once.(1)

In view of the terms of reference of the Royalties Commission,(2) and the results of its inquiry, and of the importance of information showing the economic operation of the systems under which industries are carried on, it may be useful to give a brief recapitulation of the essential features which mark the system of State control of mining in France.

(ii.) General view of mining laws.

The characteristic feature of the system of mining laws in France are:(3) (1) That the Government has sovereign power to decide whether there shall or shall not be a concession, what its extent shall be, and in favour of whom. Works of exploration must first prove the value of the mine to be conceded. (2) The Government cannot impose at its own discretion any condition peculiar to the concessionnaire except on two points, viz., the "inventor's indemnity" and the ground rent or royalty (*rédevance tréfoncière*) to be paid to the proprietors of the surface; all other conditions are fixed by the law. The inventor's indemnities have varied from 40*l.* to 2,000*l.* in the last century. One form of the ground rent is fixed, and is from ¼*d.* to ½*d.* an acre, to be paid whether the mine is worked or not, to the landlords whose property lies within the concession; the other is proportional, about 5*d.* a ton extracted, and is only paid to the landlords of those lands under which work is proceeding. (3) The law determines the taxes due to the State, and the conditions laid down for working. The taxes are twofold, fixed (¼*d.* per acre) and proportional (5·5 per cent. of the net revenue produced in the preceding year). A concession may be withdrawn if the following conditions are not observed: (*a.*) Government authorisation is required for combination of mining concessions; (*b.*) when a syndicate of concessionaires has been formed each party to the contract must pay the share agreed upon of the expenses, (*c.*) works of safety ordered by the Government must be carried out, and if with the help of Government loans, must be repaid. (4) While the State neither possesses nor works any mine, there is a State department, composed of the Minister of Public Works, assisted by a technical committee, called the General Mining Council. Under the Minister, the prefects for each department issue instructions supported by mining experts or engineers. France is divided into 17 mineralogical arrondissements, at the head of which is a chief mining engineer who is in correspondence with the prefects and the Minister; these arrondissements are sub-divided into sections under charge of an ordinary engineer, who inspects the mines and reports to the chief engineer. "It is unanimously admitted that "fertile results follow the absolute distinction which "exists between surface property and the working right "of mines. In a country where property is so minutely "sub-divided as it is in France, the reasonable and "active working of mines would be impossible on any "other system."(4)

Effect on production.

As to the State tax on the net revenue, while it seems satisfactory in theory it often produces unsatisfactory relations between the miners and the authorities. "The great majority of the former would be glad to "give up this system for one which might not look so "good in theory, but which would be more simple and "much less annoying; that is to say, the payment of a "tax per ton extracted, whatever the net revenue "might be."(4)

(iii.) State regulation of safety in mines.

General precautionary measures against accidents are imposed upon all concessionaires by a decree of 1813. Provision of medicaments and skilled assistance is compulsory, and instructions on the subject are given to the directors of the mines by the Minister. Certain specially important mines have the duty of maintaining a special surgeon. On occasion of occurrence of an accident, the mayor and the inspecting engineer are bound to appear on the spot immediately and to issue all necessary instructions. Neighbouring concessionaires may be called upon to render every assistance in their power.(5)

(iv.) Law providing for working men inspectors.

The law of July 8, 1890, provided for the institution of "delegate miners" who should visit mines, *minières* and quarries for the purposes of examining (1) the general conditions of safety for the miners, and (2) the circumstances preceding any accident which may arise.(6) The district over which an individual delegate's duties extend is determined by an order of the prefect, after a report on the subject has been submitted to the Minister of Public Works by the inspecting engineer. The "district" generally includes a certain number of pits, galleries and yards belonging to one undertaking, and which would not require more than six days for complete examination. The delegate is bound to visit this district twice a month. In case of accident the director of the mine must give an account of the attendant circumstances on the spot to the delegate. All observations made by the delegate must be entered in a special register which is kept open for use of the workmen. The delegates are elected by the miners by ballot, they must be Frenchmen, in enjoyment of political rights, must be 25 years of age, and be able to read and write. Their office lasts for three years, and they are paid by the Treasury for their days of inspection at the ordinary rate for their day's work. No reports on the working of this law of July 8, 1890, have been published. Each engineer-in-chief in charge of a district addresses a report yearly to the Minister of Public Works of a confidential character (*rapport administratif et confidentiel*) on the workings of the mining service, which includes references to the délégués mineurs, but these are never published in any official document. Certain Ministerial circulars regulating nomination, remuneration, &c., of the delegates have been published in the *Journal Officiel*, 1890-2. M. Basly has a Bill before the Chamber which proposes to extend the district in charge of a delegate so that he may devote his whole time to it and cease to be dependent on his work as a miner. This of course would fundamentally alter the character of the institution.

(v.) The great mining and quarrying districts of France.

The greatest coalfields are in the Pas-de-Calais, Nord, Gard, Loire, Saône-et-Loire, Aveyron, and Allier departments. These are mentioned in their order according to the number of workmen of all kinds employed in them. The most important mining department, coal mines excepted, is the Meurthe-et-Moselle department. Rich and important single mines exist in many other parts, but these are the widest spread mining districts. The diagram A facing the page, shows the numbers employed in the districts mentioned in 1889.(7) The map illustrates the mining departments.

The numbers employed in mines were 12,000 more in 1890 than 1889. The totals are:—Men 119,578, women 4,363, boys (under 16) 10,119, *i.e.*, altogether 134,060. The workers in the mines of the Anzin Company had increased to 10,000; of Lens, 7,000; Blanzy, 6,600; Grand Combe, 4,800. The numbers employed in iron *minières* were estimated at 1,500, and in quarries at 110,000. The diagram B gives the proportion of workers employed in quarrying in various departments in 1889.(8)

(vi.) Organisation of miners' work.

The latest accessible figures showing the wages and hours of miners are the result of an official inquiry started in 1890, and are to be found in the volume for 1891 of the "Statistique de l'Industrie Minérale." Before analysing them it is important to sketch the organisation of miners' work in France. "With the "exception of certain special kinds of work—of pre-"paration and repair, performed in three shifts of "eight hours each—there is for the 24 hours only one "shift of working on the face, this is the day shift or "*poste de charbon*, which begins according to the "district, between 4 a.m. and 6 a.m. There is normally "a second shift, called the night shift, which begins "between 3 p.m. and 5 p.m. In this period, propping, "repairs, and removing spoil are carried on, kinds of "work which could not be executed simultaneously "with the coal mining and removal of the coal. "Except in those districts where, on account of the

System of shifts.

(1) *Ib.*, questions 19,449-58.
(2) "To inquire into the amounts paid as royalties . . . . . on coal . . . . . and metals of mines . . . . . worked in the United Kingdom, and the terms and conditions under which those payments are made, and into the economic operation thereof upon the mining industries of the country; and further to inquire into the terms and conditions under which mining enterprise is conducted in . . . . . foreign countries by the system of concession or otherwise, and the economic operation thereof."
(3) See Block's Dictionnaire de l'Administration Française, and Say's Dictionnaire d'Economie Politique, articles *Mines*; also report sent by Sir J. Crowe to Mining Royalties Commission, Fourth Report, Appendix pp. 102-6.
(4) Fourth Report, Royal Commission on Mining Royalties, 1893, p. 106.
(5) Dictionnaire de l'Administration Française, article *Mines*.
(6) Do. do. do. *Délégués mineurs* and Annuaire de la Bourse du Travail, Paris, 1892, p. 372. For text of the law *see* Appendix XI., p. 120.
(7) See table at the end of the Statistique de l'Industrie Minérale, 1891.
(8) Statistique de l'Industrie Minérale for 1879 and 1889, p. 42-8 and Appendix.

" slightness of the layers, the earth has to be removed, " the more and more distinct tendency is to clear spoil " during the day shift so as to do away with the night " shift, except in urgent cases, when repairs have to " be attended to as promptly as possible.

" Wages are fixed by the job usually for the coal " winners, by load or measure of volume, or else as " the work advances, or concurrently by both these " systems at once. In the case of repairs only is the " work paid for by the day. There is as a rule no " stipulation with regard to a minimum of day labour.

No sliding scale.

" There is no scale of wages variable according to " the price of coal. Wages on the contrary rather " tend to be fixed, although with a constant tendency to " increase year by year. However of late . . . the " workmen, especially in districts where there has been " a considerable rise in prices, have received, in the " form of premiums, successive increase with the rise " of the price of coal.(1)

(vii.) Wages in the coal industry.

A comparison of rates of wages is most valuable and interesting when it separates the most highly skilled of the miners from their assistants and from women and child workers. For the whole of France the engineers' calculations of coal miners' wages give the following figures :—

Categories of Workers.	Underground.	Overground.
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.
Hewers	5 4	—
Repairers, timbermen, &c.	4 41	—
Rolleywaymen and trammers	3 58	3 21
Women	—	1 61
Children	1 91	1 44

These figures vary widely from the mean average wage, which is calculated as 3 fr. 94 c. They do not include either premiums or such allowances as free coal, cheap dwellings, pensions, relief funds. These advantages are not easily expressed in figures, but complicated calculations have led to the conclusion that they amount to an additional 35 c. per head per day in the collieries.(2) The following table gives the result of this calculation for the chief coalfields :—

TABLE XVII.(3)

Classes of Workers.	Mean Daily Wage of Workers in the chief Coal Districts (including Bonuses and Allowances).								
	Valenciennes.		St. Étienne (Loire).	Alais (Gard).	Le Creusot Blauzy (Saone-et-Loire).	Aubin and Carmaux (Tarn).	Commentry (Allier).	Graissessec (Hérault).	Fuveau (Bouches du Rhône).
	Pas de Calais.	Nord.							
Underground.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.
Hewers	5 91	5 56	5 93	5 38	5 26	4 59	4 48	5 22	4 85
Repairers, &c.	4 85	4 75	5 12	4 35	5 01	4 57	4 16	5 15	4 31
Rolleywaymen, &c.	3 96	4 33	4 10	3 99	4 00	3 67	3 38	3 87	3 47
Children	2 16	2 56	2 25	2 67	2 54	—	—	2 35	2 86
Overground.									
Men	3 73	4 05	3 55	3 57	4 30	3 45	3 41	3 53	3 63
Women	2 06	2 03	2 25	1 70	2 29	1 64	1 62	1 78	1 64
Children	1 71	2 01	1 80	1 59	2 05	2 07	1 86	1 88	1 51

Proportion of classes of workers.

The proportion of the different classes of workers in collieries are :—Hewers, 38, repairers, 10, rolleywaymen, 41, women, 3, boys, 8, in 100 workers. In 1890, the total employed underground was 82,488, overground, 29,127, and in all, 111,615.

The next table compares the annual production of the workers with the annual and daily wage :—

TABLE XVIII.(4)

Coalfields.	Annual Wage per Worker.		Daily Wage per Worker.		Annual Production per Worker.		Total Wage per Ton produced.
	Underground.	Overground.	Underground.	Overground.	Underground.	Without distinction.	
	Fr.	Fr.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Tons	Tons	Fr. c.
Nord and Pas-de-Calais	1,378	1,008	4 72	3 21	325	252	5 13
Saint Etienne	1,392	996	4 91	3 47	318	225	5 81
Alais	1,330	1,027	4 68	3 15	252	170	7 23
Le Creusot and Blanzy	1,365	1,072	4 49	3 56	348	190	6 31
Aubin and Carmaux	1,273	636	4 31	2 77	292	186	5 59
Commentry	1,099	850	3 92	2 94	315	216	4 73
Lignites of Fuveau (Provence)	1,053	924	4 38	3 37	234	166	6 11
General figures for France	1,314	936	4 57	3 16	300	215	5 62

Rise in wages, and rate of production.

The rise in wages for the last 10 years has been continuous, but also the average production per worker has not ceased to rise. In 1870 this last was 168 tons, in 1880 it was 195 tons, in 1890, 252 tons. But this alone was not sufficient to produce the higher wage, and the consumer has paid his share in the rising price of coal.(5) MM. Duval and Aguillon held that miners in France receive about 50 per cent. of the price of coal at the pit's mouth(6) :—

(viii.) Allowances.

Allowances in the chief districts are calculated at :—

	c.	
For Pas-de-Calais	41	per head per day.
,, Nord	53	,, ,,
,, Saint Étienne	25	,, ,,
,, Alais	24	,, ,,
,, Le Creusot and Blanzy	56	,, ,,
,, Commentry	17	,, ,,
,, Carmaux	20	,, ,,
,, Aubin	26	,, ,,
,, Graissessac	25	,, ,,
,, Fuveau	14	,, ,,

Discounting allowances, the highest wage given to underground workers is 5 fr. 68 c. in the Loire; and

(1) Royal Commission on Mining Royalties, Fourth Report, Appendix, p. 105.
(2) *See* supplementary note at the end of this Section.
(3) Statistique de l'Industrie Minérale for 1889, Appendix, p. 234.
(4) Do. do. for 1890, p. 11.
(5) "Journal des Economistes," March 1892, article by G. François, "Les Houillères du Nord etc."
(6) Final Report Royal Commission on Mining Royalties, p. 76.

the highest wage given to overground workers is 3 fr. 74 c. at Blanzy in the Saône-et-Loire department.

(ix.) Length of day's work.

In gauging the value to the miners of these wages, or, from another standpoint, the effort that it has cost them to earn them, note must be taken first of all of the length of the day's work. In the Pas de Calais a hewer earns 5 fr. 30 c. by a day of eight hours' work, while at Commentry, in the Allier department, the same workman is paid 4 fr. 31 c. for nine hours' work. "This depends upon the fact that the contracts "between employed and employers are necessarily "influenced by local usages, by the struggle for "existence, and above all by the necessity for the "employer as much as for the employed of maintaining sufficiently remunerative conditions."(1)

The hours vary from eight throughout the Pas-de-Calais and Loire departments(2) to 10 hours in the Grand' Combe Mines (Gard). Other mines in the Gard department work nine hours; and Anzin (Nord) and the majority of the mines in the Saône-et-Loire department work nine hours. "Out of 82,488 workers in "the interior of mines, 37,499, that is to say, "45 per cent. work eight hours a day; 16,794 work a "shorter day, and 28,195 a longer day." The overground workers' day is generally nearer 10 hours than eight. The mean day for the former is 8h. 13m., the mean day for the latter, 9h. 39m. Boys working in the mines are generally employed during the same hours as the men; above ground their hours and those of the women are sometimes cut short by one or two hours as in the Pas-de-Calais, sometimes intermitted by rests as in the Aveyron.

The figures just given indicate hours of actual work. Presence in the mines and yards is sometimes longer. The following table shows the number of workmen who are on duty during given hours:—

TABLE XIX.

No. of overground workers -	—	—	358	296	—	12,071	1,883	4,933	8,986
No. of underground workers -	2,898	6,330	18,633	14,728	1,503	22,260	611	12,813	2,712
Totals - - -	2,898	6,330	19,591	15,024	1,503	34,331	2,494	17,746	11,698
Hours spent at or in mines -	8h.	8¾h.	9h.	9½h.	9¾h.	10h.	10½h.	11h.	12h.

(x.) Conditions in iron and other mines.

The official inquiry of 1890 showed that there were 10,785 workers employed in the metallic and other mines (not coal) which are scattered over a large number of departments; they are classed as follows:—

TABLE XX.

Class of Workers.	Underground.	Overground.	Total.	Percentage.
Hewers (piqueurs) -	5,069	—	5,069	47·
Repairers (ouvriers d'états) - -	643	—	643	6·
Rolleywaymen (manœuvres) - -	1,415	2,668	4,083	38·
Women - -	—	542	542	5·
Boys (enfants) -	125	323	448	4·
Totals -	7,252	3,533	10,785	100·

Meurthe-et-Moselle iron mines.

Meurthe-et-Moselle is the only department which employs a considerable number of workmen in mines other than coal mines. In iron mines alone in 1890 2,166 were employed underground, 490 overground, 81 of which were boys (*enfants*).

No women are employed about the mines in this department.

Wages in iron mines.

The following figures show the daily and yearly wage of workers in mines other than coal mines throughout France in 1890:—

TABLE XXI.

1. *Mean Daily Wage.*

Classes of Workers.	Iron Mines.	Metallic Mines.	Various Substances.	Salt.
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.
(*a.*) *Underground.*				
Hewers - - -	4 37	3 83	3 76	4.38
Repairers, &c. - -	3 89	3 80	3 50	—
Rolleywaymen, &c. -	2 94	3 08	3 19	3.45
Children - - -	2 22	1 72	2 08	—
(*b.*) *Overground.*				
Men - - -	3 43	2 86	2 95	3.44
Women - - -	1 62	1 43	—	—
Children - -	1 65	1 41	1 92	1.56
All classes - - -	3 95	3 24	3 45	3.92

2. *Mean Yearly Wage.*

All classes - -	Fr. 1,059	Fr. 829	Fr. 880	Fr. 1,156

(1) Statistique de l'Industrie Minérale, 1891, p. 235.
(2) Blanzy (Saône-et-Loire) works also eight hours.

Allowances in iron mines.

Allowances in these mines are much less important than in the collieries. They average 12 centimes per head per day, for iron mines, four centimes in other metallic mines, 11 centimes under the undertakings classed as various, and six centimes in the salt mines.(3)

Hours in iron and miscellaneous mines.

Hours of labour in iron mines average nine, underground, and between eight and a quarter and eight and a half for the other mines. In almost all cases the hours on duty are longer than the hours of actual work. The following table shows the proportion of workers actually at work under stated periods of time:—

TABLE XXII.

1. *Underground Workers.*

	7 to 7½ Hours.	8 to 8½ Hours.	9 to 9½ Hours.	10 to 10½ Hours.	11 Hours.
Iron mines - - -	188	641	1,622	937	52
Metallic mines - -	931	1,058	566	359	103
Other mines - -	101	380	53	109	—
Salt mines - -	26	95	16	16	—
Totals - - -	1,246	2,174	2,256	1,420	155

2. *Overground Workers.*

Iron mines - -	13	—	102	621	136
Metallic mines - -	—	—	1,005	1,202	208
Other mines - -	2	—	6	74	108
Salt mines - - -	—	—	7	41	8
Totals -	15	—	1,120	1,938	460

(xi.) Accidents in mining industries.

In view of proposed legislation on employers' liability and compulsory insurance, statistics of accidents become specially important. But "statistics of accidents "supply data of a very unequal value. The number "of workmen killed can be known as accurately as "possible; but the number of injured and of corresponding accidents is not exactly known . . . In "accordance with the decree of January 3rd, 1813, "deaths and grave injuries alone (excepting those due "to fire damp accidents), are brought to the knowledge of the engineers; the definition of injuries "which ought to be considered grave is a difficult "matter."(4)

In 1890, 180 accidents and 178 cases of injury more than in 1889 were reckoned to have occurred; but there were 23 fewer deaths.

(3) *See* Appendix X., pp. 112-9, for full tables of wages in mines drawn from the Statistique Minérale, 1889.
(4) Statistique de l'Industrie Minérale for 1890, p. 52.

The following table compares the number of workmen employed with the number of accidents and of victims in 1890.(1)

TABLE XXIII.

Nature of Undertaking.	Number of Workers Employed.			Number of Accidents.		Number of Victims.					
						Underground.		Above ground.		Total.	
	Underground.	Above ground.	Total.	Underground.	Above ground.	Killed.	Wounded.	Killed.	Wounded.	Killed.	Wounded.
Coal mines - -	86,836	34,719	121,555	734	96	292	679	20	79	312	758
Other mines - -	8,567	3,938	12,505	69	4	15	56	1	3	16	59
Together - -	95,403	38,657	134,060	803	100	307	735	21	82	328	817
Underground quarries -	11,970	6,656	18,626	61	4	23	50	3	1	26	51
Open quarries - -	—	93,024	93,024	—	168	—	—	91	110	91	110
Total - -	107,373	138,337	245,710	864	272	330	785	115	193	445	978

(xii.) Concessions granted to miners, and worked by them.

(1.) Rive de Gier.

Two attempts have been made in France to work mines by the miners themselves. These have been at Rive de Gier, and at Monthieux (in the St. Étienne coalfields). The former was the earlier attempt and already showed signs of failure when the second was begun. The miners syndicate of Rive de Gier "got "their concession for nothing. The original con- "cessionaries went to law with the syndicate to recover "the mine but were cast in several actions at law. "The Government then intervened and forced the "syndicate to form themselves into a company. Their "prospects for a time looked better than had been "expected, because a remnant of seam was found still "existing, which it had been thought was exhausted."(2) "Dissolution," however, began to set in; a number of members left the principal pit and began working a fresh place on their own account the syndicate became divided against itself, and so was led into fresh litigations.

(2.) Monthieux.

The colliery of Monthieux which became the property of the miners' syndicate of St. Étienne in the autumn of 1891, is a concession of about 69 hectares (170 acres) in the coalfield of St. Étienne. It belonged previously to the firm of Stern and Company in Paris, who spared no pains to keep the works and plant in order. Two shafts, one being for ventilating purposes, were sunk to the depth of 500 metres. A sum of 2,000,000 francs. (80,000*l.*), was said to have been spent on the undertaking, but unsuccessfully, and the works and plant were put up to auction at a reserve of 300,000 francs (12,000*l.*). No buyers appeared, and finally it was sold to the Miners' Syndicate for 10,000 francs (400*l.*), a sum which they obtained from the Municipal Council of St. Étienne with the sanction of the Government. The Government, however, would only consent to the transfer of the concession on the condition that the miners could start with 60,000 francs (2,400*l.*). This was presented to them by M. Marinom, a wealthy capitalist. But then the Miners' Syndicate had "to "face an outlay for royalties, pensions and sick funds, "and other outgoings of about 9,000 francs (360*l.*) a "year, and to hold money in hand for working ex- "penses. To meet these liabilities they asked the "Government for a grant in aid of 50,000 francs "(2,000*l.*)."(4) This grant was voted in the Chamber of Deputies on December 1st, by all the members present except one. It was treated as a vote for relief of the miners who had been out of work for seven months. M. Basly, the labour representative, had wished that the vote should be for the purpose of assuring work to the miners of Monthieux "which would have been an objectionable precedent."(5)

The administrative council.

The 500 miners of Monthieux began their operations by electing an administrative council. They had before them (together with the inherited burden of pensions to former workmen injured in the mines) the problem of reducing the working expenses in a deep colliery, in which the principal seam was so exceptionally fiery, that two years before an explosion in a neighbouring concession killed 200 men, and where the condition of the roofing was so dangerous that an unusual amount of timbering was constantly required.

The administrative council began by discharging a certain number of the workmen of the old company, who did not belong to the syndicate. The members of the syndicate, however, took the part of these discharged workmen and a struggle began between the council and the syndicate. This struggle resolved itself ultimately into a dispute about money. The syndicate demanded a restitution from the council of 20,000 francs. In the end of April strike troubles began which were only closed on July 1st by an order of the Presiding Judge (*Président du Tribunal*), which called for the nomination of a new council of administration within ten days. During this period the mine was closed. When it was opened under a new council the financial difficulties of the situation began to make themselves felt. The wages paid were the same as in the other concessions of the Loire, and were for a shorter day of only eight hours' duty. One of the pits became flooded, in another badly conducted work caused a subsidence in the ground, which ended by involving the miners' company (*Société de la Mine aux mineurs*), in a lawsuit with owners of houses threatened with ruin.

"Such is the existing situation."(6) Everything seems to point to the conclusion that the mine must be closed. The reports of actions at law form a long series, showing internal dissensions, which point to the conclusion that workmen when they become employers inherit the difficulties of employers, and add to them those arising out of want of discipline and inexperience.(7)

(xiii.) Supplementary note on employers' institutions.

The Lens Mining Company claims, in reply to a statement made by strikers in the end of September, 1893, that while it has devoted nearly 60 million francs to the establishment of its pits, railways, schools and workmen's lodgings, and to the acquisition of its material and machinery, and distributes annually three million francs to its stockholders, it pays each year more than 15 million francs in wages to its various servants. "Is it then to be blamed for having known "how to render valuable the mineral wealth discovered "by it under the sterile plains of Lens, for having "largely contributed to enrich a country formerly very "poor, for having so developed its industry that it now "provides a living for 45,000 inhabitants and pays "8,400 workmen wages, the general average of which "rose in 1892 and 1893 to 4f. 76c. a day? This average "does not include the accessory advantages of lodging

(1) Statistique de l'Industrie Minérale for 1890, p. 52.
(2) Despatch by Sir Joseph Crowe to the Foreign Office, dated Paris, November 30th, 1891.
(4) Despatch quoted.
(5) *See* "Journal Officiel" of that session for Debates in the Chamber on this subject.
(6) "La Revue d'Économie Politique" January 1893, p. 41-2.
(7) A very different account of these undertakings is given in the "Revue d'Économie Politique," July-August 1893, by Dr. Regnault and M. Waton. It is shown that the workers at Rive-de-Gier have exercised constant self-control, moderation, and industry in the face of great privations and hardships; that 46,000 tons of coal have been extracted in six years, and that for five years 100 workers have been entirely supported by the undertaking; that the land and plant have been continually added to, while an important reserve fund has been formed. Finally, it is declared that the company has a promising future before it. The affairs of the Monthieux undertaking have been managed with less sagacity, and greater internal difficulties have had to be overcome. But even this company has a hopeful future, and 170 workers are supported by the mine. In both cases the wages, hours, and production per worker are the same as those in neighbouring concessions. G.D.—11/11/93.

" at reduced prices, gratuitous fuel, superannuation " pensions, and other grants. There are few pro- " fessions or industries in France offering their work- " men such advantages. In normal times the company " is besieged with requests for work from men who " appreciate the favour of entering its service."(1) The present content of the Anzin miners during a period of general agitation and strikes makes it interesting to inquire into the *institutions patronales* which are to be found in that district.(2) In the mines of the Anzin company payment is entirely by the piece (*à l'enterprise*), and in this way active skilled workers earn from one-fourth to one-third more than the less active. The company pays more than 31,000 francs yearly to schools and libraries, helps to support four churches, and has in its pay two chaplains (curés) for the workers. It possesses 2,628 houses with gardens, which it lets at less than half the market rate (from 3f. 50c. to 6 francs a month); in this way the company foregoes about 223,800 francs a year. Free fuel is distributed to the amount of 359,130 francs annually. The following figures show the expenditure in pensions and relief during 1888:—

	Fr.	c.
1. Pensions to aged workers -	581,978	70
2. Monthly relief to orphans -	16,083	85
3. Relief to invalids and widows who are without claim for a pension - - - - -	23,292	10
4. Contribution to the miners' relief fund - - - - -	9,698	90
5. Subscriptions to the national superannuation fund - -	108,427	70
Total - -	739,481	25

The costs of medical aid and *service de santé* in the same year were 198,709f. 27c. The company also subscribes to recreation and musical societies. The institutions for their workpeople supported by the *Compagnie des Mines de Blanzy* (Saône-et-Loire) are of a similar liberal character.

(*b.*) Transport and Agriculture.

(1.) *Transport.*

(i.) The docks at Havre and Marseilles.

Reports of Her Majesty's Consuls at Havre and Marseilles in 1892 give the most recent detailed information on the conditions of labour in docks.

The docks at Havre are State property and are managed by the Engineers of Bridges and Causeways, subject to the control of the minister of Public Works. The docks at Marseilles are partly State and partly private property (belonging to a dock company and the Chamber of Commerce). The port authorities control and direct the Government property and the Harbour Works while a board of directors manage the affairs of the Dock Company and Chamber of Commerce.

(ii.) Conditions at Havre.

At Havre there are nine docks covering about 185 acres and providing quay room for ships extending to 12,370 yards. During 1891, exclusive of coasting trade 2,826 vessels of 2,603,875 tons register entered the docks. In 1892, 2,529 vessels of 2,320,626 tons register entered(3). Of these 1,232 were British vessels (including packets) with 922,730 tons register. The following table gives the total entries of British ships in five northern ports:—

Table XXIV.(4)

Table showing Total Entries of British Shipping in the Six Principal Ports of the District of the Consulate General in the years 1892 and 1891.

Ports.	1892.		1891.	
	Number of Vessels.	Tons.	Number of Vessels.	Tons.
Havre - -	1,074	869,316	1,213	1,052,897
Caen -	304	96,896	331	104,132
Trouville -	109	39,319	122	43,094
Honfleur -	129	62,484	167	91,343
Fécamp -	58	18,441	67	19,818
Dieppe -	422	174,551	486	228,077
Total -	2,096	1,261,007	2,386	1,539,361

(1) *See* "Times," September 27, 1893.
(2) *See* Rapports du Jury Internationale, Groupe de l'Économie Sociale, Part. II., p. 460.
(3) Cf. also F.O. Report, Annual Series, No. 1174, 1893, p. 2.
(4) *Ib.*, p. 6.

Improvements of the port.

Great alterations and improvements of the port have been projected and partly provided for by legislation. Eventually a larger subsidy will have to be granted to carry out the full scheme. The Western Railway Company has lines laid down round the five chief basins of the harbour. Movable and floating hydraulic and steam cranes are in use. The lighting of the channel and estuary of the Seine have recently been improved, and there is a great increase in safety for night work.

French sailors on foreign vessels.

During the last three or four years a good many French sailors and firemen have been regularly shipped on steamers leaving this port for the United States. The necessity for guarantees of repatriation acts as a certain check on this movement.(5)

Emigration.

The number of emigrants who embarked at Havre in 1892 for foreign countries was 26,530 or 8,400 less than the previous year. Of these only 2,669 were of French nationality.

Numbers of employed.

The number of men employed on the quays at Havre varies greatly from day to day. The *Compagnie des Docks Entrepôts* steadily employ 300 men, who are engaged by the month, and last year the average number of day labourers was 400. The greatest number of men employed at one time is 5,000.

The ordinary work of loading and unloading is done at a rate per ton by stevedores, who act to a certain extent as middlemen. There appear to be no syndicates among these men. In 1892 a Syndical Chamber of the Civil Navigators of the Port was founded with 100 members.(6)

No women are employed about the port.

Wages.

The purchasing power of wages is considered by Her Majesty's Consul to be from 15 to 20 per cent. less than in England. The following are the daily rates paid by the Dock Company.

Foremen and coopers -	- 7 francs.
Regular labourers - - -	- 5 francs 40.
Casual men - - -	- 6 francs.
Coal porters - -	- 7 to 8 francs.
Machine drivers - -	- 5 francs 50.

Lightermen are paid 120 francs a month.

The men are engaged by the day or half day, rarely by the hour. They receive counters which are exchanged for money at the end of a week or fortnight. It is the regular men who are paid fortnightly.

Hours.

From April 1st to September 31st working hours are from 6 a.m. till 12 noon (rest from 8 till 8.30) and 2 p.m. till 6 p.m.

From October 1st to March 31st hours are 7.30 till 12 noon (rest 9 till 9.15) and 1.30 till 4.30 or 6 p.m.

The average working day is nine hours, and it is rare for men to work more than 24 hours at a stretch.

Overtime is paid at one third more than the ordinary rate and sometimes on Sundays and holidays at double rate.

Sanitation and inspection of machinery.

There are no sanitary regulations for warehouses, sheds or unhealthy cargoes and after machinery has been once officially inspected before first use, it is no longer controlled. Workmen are insured by the employers against risk of accidents.

There is no competition for employment by foreign labour in the port. Periodically large numbers of men are out of work, but there are no special provisions for relief of unemployed beyond those supplied by the *bureaux de bienfaisance* and private charity.

(iii.) Conditions at Marseilles.

The machinery in use at Marseilles is of the same character as at Havre. Improvement works are actively progressing.

The surface of the docks covers 1,720,560 square metres, the extent of quays is 18,117 metres.

Extent of docks, &c.

During 1891, 9,063 ships arrived of 5,307,619 tons register. In 1892, 8,123 vessels with 4,817,381 tons register entered the port. Of these 613 were of British nationality and 5,905 were French vessels, the former registered 873,896 tons and the latter 2,996,860 tons. The entry and tonnage of British vessels showed a decrease for 1892. Fewer French vessels entered than in the previous year, but the tonnage was rather greater.

(5) *Ib.*, p. 4.
(6) Annuaire des Syndicats Professionels, p. 270.

Emigration. Emigration from the Port of Marseilles was 3,540 in 1892, and was almost exclusively Italian.(1)

Numbers of employed. It is estimated that from 1,600 to 1,700 men are daily at work in the docks. Only a few of the Navigation Companies have a permanent staff. In most cases the work is given out by contract at so much per ton and per nature of goods. The contractors pay the men at a daily or half daily rate.

There are two syndicates among the workers, one founded in 1883, the other in 1891; both are of very small dimensions.(2)

Women's labour. A few women are employed in the port for unripping and sewing up bales and sorting goods. They are generally related to dock labourers.

Wages. Wages are, for foremen 200 to 250 francs a month, for labourers 5 francs a day, and 3 francs for half a day or less. Stevedores earn 6 francs a day, engine men 7 francs a day with a percentage on the coal economised. The wages are paid at the dock pay-offices by the contractors. The truck system is unknown.

Hours. Hours of work are 10 in summer and eight in winter. Night work, Sunday and holiday work are paid by special agreement. A man who has worked all night may stop work if he pleases for the next day.

Accidents. Provision is made against accident by fire, and a Government Commissioner inspects the machinery once a month. Contractors are liable for all accidents occurring to men working under them and insurance is general. Unhealthy cargoes are supervised.(3)

Foreign labour. Nearly half the labourers employed are Italians, and there has been a great deal of ill-feeling and even strikes caused by their employment. After a strike in 1891 it was agreed that not more than three-tenths of the employed should be Italians, but the agreement has been a dead letter.

(iv.) The employés in the building yards of the Messageries Maritimes. Shipbuilding at La Ciotat, near Marseilles, has lately developed at an extraordinary rate under the Messageries Maritimes Company. In 1892 there were 4,112 workmen employed. All the employés of the Company are given an interest in the profits as they are awarded a percentage on economies effected by them in their work. The company supports an insurance fund, a pension fund, and a hospital for the sick or injured.

(v.) The railway employé in France. Mr. Condie Stephen illustrates the condition of the railway employé in France by a detailed account of a railway company's institutions; the name of the company is not given.(4)

In France, he says, wages for railway servants are determined at the beginning of every year and paid monthly. Allowances and premiums make a very considerable addition to the wages, sometimes more than doubling them. Allowances are given on the ground of distance from work, and may amount on this head alone to 2s. 6d. or 3s. a day; free passes over the lines are liberally given to employés' families, and extra allowances are made to those who have more than three children. Premiums are granted for (*a.*) economy in use of materials; (*b.*) punctuality in arrival of passenger trains; (*c.*) making up time which was not lost through the servant's fault; (*d.*) care taken of the engines. The following table shows the addition that may be made to wages by such premiums. The figures are for 1882:—

TABLE XXV.A.

Occupations.	Fixed pay.	Premium.	Total.
	Francs.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.
Engineers:			
Maximum	2,700	2,246 70	4,946 70
Average	2,200	1,120 70	3,320 70
Stokers:			
Maximum	1,600	423 05	2,023 05
Average	1,482	218 50	1,700 50

Wages. The maximum average wages of engineers and stokers, including the fixed rate, extra pay for residence at a distance, and premiums, amounted in 1882 to:—

TABLE XXV.B.

	Fr.	c.
Engineers:		
Maximum	5,340	45
Average	3,701	60
Stokers:		
Maximum	2,516	05
Average	1,989	80

Engineers are paid by the day, and in 1892 were as follows: Daily wage, 6 francs 25 centimes (5s.), annual increase 6*d.* a day until the sum has amounted to 8 francs 75 c. In rare cases it may amount to 9 francs 35.

Stokers commence at 3 francs 75 centimes (3s.), and the annual increase is 3*d.* until the sum has amounted to 5 francs a day.

Further details are given in the following table:—(5)

TABLE XXVI.

COMPARATIVE TABLE of Wages Paid at the Present Time to Some Other Employés of the Company.

	Francs.
Pointsmen of all grades	1,300 to 2,050
Guards and breakmen	1,300 „ 1,850
Labourers, porters of all grades, navvies, &c.	1,000 „ 1,600
Washers	1,200 „ 1,500

Grants in aid of rent may be given over and above other allowances referred to, the company disburses 1,000,000 francs annually for this. Wages are not paid for days off work, but Sunday labour is paid at the rate of time and a half, and holidays are regularly granted. Servants on the transport staff are granted 12 to 20 days holiday in the year with full pay, servants in the offices similarly have from 10 to 20 days.

Number and classes of employed. The staff of the company under consideration consists of 23,000 employés. No one is admitted to employment under 21 years of age or over 35.

Applicants for service are examined free of charge as to physical fitness by the company's medical officer. When vacancies occur choice is first made among those candidates who have completed their military service.

The employed are divided into three classes:—

(1.) The regulars on transport duty registered and possessing a commission signed by the director of the company.

(2.) Probationers on transport duty who are paid daily for six months or a year.

(3.) The clerical staff, who are paid from 100 francs to 150 francs a month.

Pension and aid funds. It is only after the period of probation has been passed that a servant can acquire rights to pension and benefit funds, medical aid, assistance with rent, and so on. When a servant accepts his commission he agrees to be bound by all the company's regulations.

The company forms a special pension fund maintained by a contribution equal to the sum retained on the wages of servants. The employés acquire a right to a regular pension on condition of having served 25 year sand of being 55. It is equal to $\frac{3}{60}$ths of the average wage of the previous six years, and is increased by $\frac{1}{60}$ of the mean salary for every year of service over 25 years on the condition that the pension does not exceed $\frac{3}{4}$rds of the average wage. The maximum retiring pension is 6,000 francs.

Other employers' institutions. Retail stores have been established by the company for the use of their servants, where the best goods are sold at the cheapest rate. The increase on cost price is only sufficient to cover working expenses. During 1890 and 1891 the sale of stores amounted to 1,200,000 francs per annum.

Aid is always granted by the company to distressed or embarrassed servants. During 1882 141,976 francs were expended in aid.

Gratuities given by the company for good conduct at the end of the same year amounted to 695,700 francs.

The company, moreover, has founded and endowed various schools, orphanages, crèches, and asylums, and distributes prizes and savings-bank books to children in the schools for application and good conduct.

(1) F.O. Report, Annual Series No. 1,182, 1893, pp. 1–4.
(2) Annuaire des Syndicats Professionels, pp. 36 and 39.
(3) Report of Her Majesty's Consul at Marseilles, 1892.
(4) See F.O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, pp. 65–76.
(5) *Ib.*, pp. 71–74.

Situations as ticket officers, telegraph clerks, waiting-room attendants are especially reserved for the widows and daughters of former servants.

It is the practice of the company to abstain as far as possible from giving notice of dismissal to a servant. He is nearly always given an opportunity of resigning, and if dismissed for misconduct is allowed at least several days' wages unless the cause be grave.

Any servant losing health for work is granted an indemnity varying from three months to one year's pay.

The company's contribution to the pension fund for one year is 1,360,000 francs.

The following are details of other sums paid by the company for certain benevolent purposes in favour of servants or the members of their families:—

TABLE XXVII.

Benefit Society.

	Francs.
One year's contribution - - -	120,000
Special charge for extra labour by inferior employés in removing snow one winter - - - -	100,000
Medical attendance, medicines -	200,000
Gratuities and aid at end of the year and various allowances - -	900,000
Premiums to engineers and stokers one year - - - -	1,469,000
Premiums to workmen, one year -	100,000
Wholesome beverages - -	30,000
Asylums and crèches' expenses -	55,000
Total - -	2,974,000
Company's contribution to pension fund - - - -	1,360,000
Making for an average year -	4,334,000

(2.) *Agriculture.*

(i.) General statistics as to sub-division of land.

While industry absorbs 25 per cent. of the population of France, commerce about 11 per cent., transport about 3 per cent., agriculture alone occupies one-half of the classified population. As shown in tables above,(1) while there were in 1886, 17,698,402 persons engaged in agriculture, 2,167,667 were small proprietors cultivating not more than one hectare of land and but little removed (in point of comfort and control of the necessaries of life) from the condition of the agricultural day labourer, of whom there were at the same time 2,772,000. The percentage of the population engaged in agriculture varies enormously in different departments; in the Seine department it is 2 per cent., in the Lozère 83 per cent. The eastern and northern departments are in general less agricultural than the southern and western, although in the Bouches-du-Rhône and Alpes Maritimes there is a considerable industrial and commercial population.

Mr. Stephen shows that agricultural land is divided into more that 14,000,000 lots, which are calculated at the total of 121,927,375 acres. More than 2,000,000 of these lots are less than half an acre, while only 17,000 of them are greater than 370 acres in extent. The surface cultivated by the proprietor with his employés and servants is 47,844,375 acres, the surface cultivated on the *métayer* system is 11,208,125 acres, and that on the tenant farmers' system is 21,782,812 acres.

(ii.) Peasant proprietorship.

It is a mistake to assume, as is sometimes done, that the system of division of property in France began only after the Revolution and the preparation of the Civil Code. Arthur Young showed that small proprietorship covered not less than a third of the kingdom, and Necker wrote at the same time that there were an "immense number" of small rural proprietors.(2) The numbers have, however, at least doubled since that date, and there is of course no question that Article 826 of the Civil Code determined as a national system what was only a national tendency before. It is to be noted at the same time that the number of large properties form 86 per cent. of the total number of lots and comprise 35·27 per cent. of the total surface.(3)

(1) Cf. supra p. 26. It is now estimated that 14 millions or three-quarters of the agricultural population cultivate farms not exceeding 20 acres. F.O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 295.
(2) *See* Rapports du Jury International. Groupe de l'Économie Sociale, Part II., p. 526.
(3) *Ib.*, p. 527.

There is a movement in the country in this matter in two directions at the present time: in some districts there seems to be a tendency towards concentration of property in fewer hands, in others there is an increasing number of proprietors. In the Cher department, for example, the twofold movement is discoverable. There is, naturally, a far greater stability of ownership in the larger and middle sized properties than in the smaller ones, though even in these latter, property passes from one generation to another in the same family. Too often the peasant proprietor has loaded himself so heavily with debt in acquiring his property that a bad season may compel him to sell it again. In some communes local crises due to stoppages in special industries or some other economic fact leads to acute embarrassment among the smaller proprietors and in those cases the properties generally go to swell those of the middle size or large properties. French writers on the working of the Civil Code regulations in respect to sub-division of land, point out that small proprietorship and excessive sub-division must be kept distinct as to their effects. The one "brings the happiest social results,"(4) the other is an obstacle to effective culture of the land, and generally an economic evil. As an extreme example the Commune of Argenteuil, near Paris, may be cited, where there are 45,000 lots in 1,500 hectares of land. It must be noted at the same time that the division of the lots by no means always signifies an equal sub-division of proprietorship. In the Cher department, for example, it means that one proprietor possesses different lots suited to different kinds of agriculture; this is in itself a kind of insurance of the proprietor against serious loss or failure. In some cases there may be different proprietors in a property which is worked by one farmer, and here the economic difficulty as to the machinery necessary for adequate exploitation of the soil may be entirely obviated. The difficulty is felt in an extreme degree in many districts, *e.g.*, at Châteauneuf, which is without proper agricultural machinery, at Venesmes and Sancoins, where very primitive implements are used and where transport of products is extremely difficult. It is by overcoming these difficulties that co-operation and the work of the syndicates may render inestimable benefits, both to agricultural as a whole in France (from the point of view of net production) and to the individual small proprietor. Such efforts not only meet the initial economic difficulties of production, but may be, and actually are, directed to the next stage of bringing the producer and consumer into easy contact. It is noteworthy and a testimony to the fact that peasant proprietorship in some form or other is not of purely modern growth, that associations in the form known as *fruitières* have existed since the 16th century in Savoy, Franche Comté, the Charente department, and other parts of France. "A *fruitière* is an association of milk "producers, generally the inhabitants of a hamlet or "village, and any person may bring his or her milk "to the *fruitière* under the distinct stipulation that he "brings all the milk he has and does not deduct any "for some other purpose except for his own personal "use. It thus becomes an association which manipulates "the milk in common, the revenue derived from the "sale being distributed in proportion to the amount of "milk furnished by each associate. There are 1,700 of "these *fruitières* in Franche Comté."(5) In Calvados a system has been established through the syndicates whereby butter is delivered direct from the producer to the consumer by parcels post; no commission is taken by the syndicate while it undertakes a control of the quality of the commodity supplied. In the department of Aisne, a *Société Laitière* was formed in 1887 at Lexhelle, which does the work of intermediary between local producers and the Paris markets.(6)

Embarrassments of the peasant proprietor.

Sub-division of lots.

(iii.) Sub-division of tenure and the work of association.

The working proprietor's remuneration for labour.

In calculations as to the superior position and the net profits of a peasant proprietor, omission is often made of any calculation as to the exact amount of wage as distinct from return on capital which is due to the working proprietor. A wage paid day labourer can make an average yearly income of 500 to 600 francs with board, or, without board of 800 to 900 francs. If consideration is taken of the fact that the working proprietor probably expends more energy in his daily labour than the day labourer, this wage should certainly be deducted from the estimate of his profits. It seems to be established that, in the peasant proprietor

(4) *Ib.*, p. 527.
(5) F.O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 295, p. 10.
(6) *Ib.*, p. 9.

class, an increased devotion to toil is to be found along with a "compressibility and a restriction of wants."(1) In certain directions of cultivation where minute personal care is most valuable small proprietorship is certainly superior to larger proprietorship. It is remarked that it is often most successful where it is in a position to profit by the experience and teaching of rich proprietors. Much may yet be done for it by improved instruction and spread of technical and trade information. In the answers to their inquiry into the condition of *métayage*(2) in France, the International Jury of 1889 received the most contradictory replies. They declared that all were either bitterly opposed to or enthusiastic partizans of the system, and that there never was a social fact subject to more diverse appreciations. The summary of the jury seemed to be that while the stability and morality of the *métayers* was proven, they were in most cases extremely poor.

Gain from proximity to large proprietors.

Métayage.

(iv.) General character of agricultural populations.

An eloquent testimony to the general character and moral worth of the peasant proprietor and agricultural labourer of France has quite recently appeared in the third volume of M. Baudrillart's work on agricultural life in France. "The population is in general upright "(*honnète*). Manners are seldom depraved (*dépravees*) "in the country. Rural families, while they have not "escaped the growth of an exaggerated spirit of inde- "pendence or the operation of those causes of dispersion "which are of more than one kind, are altogether better "than has been alleged. It is exceptional where a "woman does not honestly and bravely fill her place "in the household. Labour and thrift are generally "practised. They are to be found in a less degree among "the day labourers. Also among owners of average "sized properties (*dans la propriété moyenne*) a foolish "tendency to expense and luxury is to be found. "Intemperance has increased among the day labourers, "but only in certain departments. The decreased "growth in population, which we have shown to be "partly due to moral causes, but also to emigration, is "the only disquieting feature in the situation. That pre- "sents doubtless many shadows, but it is impossible to "deny that the immense majority of our rural popula- "tions accept the great law of labour with courage, "and undergo sufficiently hard privations without "bitter repining, and without revolt."(3) These are reflections acquired after years of close observation all over France. The inquiry which is reported in the volumes referred to was made, as its author says, not for the illustration of any theory but "in the name of "the method of observation."

Steady economic progress in 50 years.

Economic progress is reported during the last forty or fifty years from all quarters. "We have discovered "it in all forms—in food, in clothing, in dwellings, in "wages, while ignoring none of the trials which the "people have to endure nor even the burdens which "rest upon property."(3)

(v.) Agricultural burdens.

A great deal has been lately spoken and written on the subject of these burdens upon land, and, though it is difficult to arrive at an exact statement, a few words may here be said before passing to illustration of local agricultural conditions.

There is much divergence of opinion as to the incidence of agricultural burdens, although it is pretty generally acknowledged that they are undoubtedly heavy. The agriculturists themselves, who may be taken as represented by M. Kergall of the *Société des Agriculteurs de France*, affirm that the total annual taxation of the income from landed property is about 700 million francs (28,000,000*l.*) while the total income is 2,250 million francs (90,000,000); the charge under the head of taxation being thus about 31¼ per cent. They calculate that the charges are in detail as follows:—

	Francs.
Land tax on land without buildings and on rural dwellings	272,000,000
Tax called *Personnelle et Mobiliére*	50,000,000
Doors and windows	27,300,000
Registry and stamps	275,000,000
Prestations (charges for country roads plus indirect taxes)	59,000,000
Total	683,300,000

Landed property in towns (*i.e.*, built on) they say pays only 23¼ per cent. of public charges, while movable property pays 8.50 per cent.(4)

L'Impôt Foncier.

The agriculturists ask for abolition of the land tax (*impôt foncier*) in order that burdens may be equalised.(5) Some burdens have been taken off lately, for instance, town land and buildings have been charged with increased taxation, while bounties have been paid on the cultivation of flax and hemp, and silk.

(vi.) Increase in sales of rural property and migration.

M. Kergall, M. Leroy-Beaulieu and M. Leon Say attribute the increased sales of rural property and the rising figures of emigration in a great measure to the burdens on land. In the eight years ending in 1887, nearly half of the arable land belonging to individual proprietors changed hands.(6) All this time the movement of the population from the country to the towns has accelerated. The following table showing migrations of the urban and rural populations gives valuable information on this head:—

(1) Rapport du Jury International cit., p. 530.
(2) For definition of *métayage*, cf. infra, p. 64.
(3) Les Populations Agricoles de la France, Vol. III., 1893, p. 3.
(3) *Ib.*, p. 4.
(4) *See* La Démocratie Rural, Journal, July 31, 1892, Almanach, 1892 and 1893.
For special tariffs, costs of transport, cf. Annuaire des Syndicats Agricoles, 1893.
(5) This has been recently declared to be an unjust and absurd proposal by M. Clémenceau during an election speech.
(6) Rapport de la Société des Agriculteurs de France, 1892.

Table XXVIII.

Table showing Migrations in France.(1)

\+ = Excess of Immigration.
− = „ Emigration.

(Numbers expressed by thousands of units).

—	Urban Population.				Rural Population.			
	From 1872 to 1876.	From 1876 to 1881.	From 1881 to 1886.	Proportion in 1,000 Inhabitants for 1881-1886.	From 1872 to 1876.	From 1876 to 1881.	From 1881 to 1886.	Proportion in 1,000 Inhabitants for 1881-1886.
1. Ain	+13,1	+ 1,2	+ 5,3	+11·9	−10,4	− 4,8	− 5,6	− 1·7
2. Aisne	+14,2	+ 9,8	+ 4,5	+ 3·0	−13,3	−17,3	− 6,1	− 1·5
3. Allier	+ 3,0	+12,7	− 0,9	− 0·9	− 5,4	−18,1	− 3,2	− 1·0
4. Alpes (Basses)	+ 0,3	− 0,8	− 2,4	−11·3	− 2,7	− 2,6	+ 2,1	+ 1·9
5. „ (Hautes)	+ 0,1	+ 1,3	+ 1,2	+ 8·7	− 1,2	+ 0,4	− 0,2	− 0·2
6. Alpes-Maritimes	+ 5,1	+21,5	+11,1	+ 8·5	− 2,1	+ 0,06	− 0,3	− 0·4

(1) La Population Française, E. Levasseur, Vol. III., p. 314-5.

MAP OF FRANCE *shewing Emigration & Immigration from 1866 to 1886.*
(drawn from Levasseur, Popn Franç. III. p. 311.)

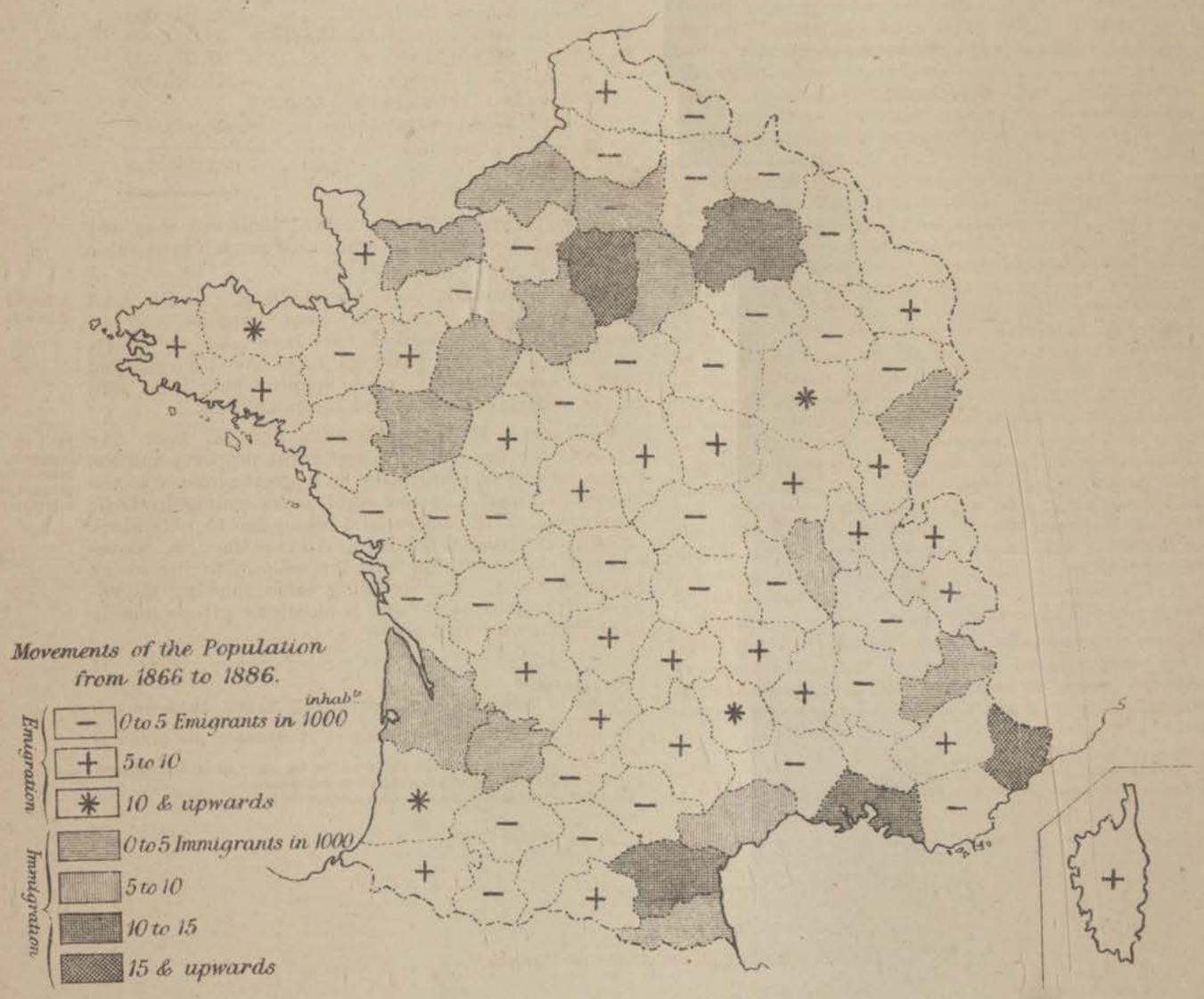


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TABLE XXVIII.—*continued.*

(Numbers expressed by thousands of units).

	Urban Population.				Rural Population.			
	From 1872 to 1876.	From 1876 to 1881.	From 1881 to 1886.	Proportion in 1,000 Inhabitants for 1881–1886.	From 1872 to 1876.	From 1876 to 1881.	From 1881 to 1886.	Proportion in 1,000 Inhabitants for 1881–1886.
7. Ardèche	− 1,8	+ 2,5	+ 2,3	+ 3·9	− 1,3	−14,3	− 8,7	− 2·7
8. Ardennes	+12,1	+ 9,2	+ 1,5	+ 1·6	−13,7	− 7,6	− 4,8	− 2·0
9. Ariège	− 0,2	+ 2,8	− 3,2	− 8·0	− 5,9	−10,5	− 2,6	− 1·3
10. Aube	+ 2,2	+ 7,1	+ 6,3	+ 8·5	− 4,3	− 3,0	− 1,2	− 0·6
11. Aude	+ 8,8	+30,1	+ 0,3	+ 0·2	+ 2,6	− 5,6	− 1,2	+ 0·5
12. Aveyron	+ 1,1	+ 3,8	+ 2,9	+ 3·6	− 3,3	−18,5	−10,8	− 3·2
13. Belfort (Territoire de)	+ 4,8	+ 3,6	+ 4,8	+16·7	+ 0,2	—	—	—
14. Bouches-du-Rhône	+ 4,6	+40,0	+24,7	+ 5·0	− 5,8	− 3,6	− 0,3	− 0·3
15. Calvados	+ 6,5	+ 1,4	+ 8,9	+ 7·9	− 4,2	− 6,3	− 6,6	− 2·0
16. Cantal	+ 0,7	+ 2,6	+ 1,2	+ 4·7	− 6,1	− 2,4	+ 0,6	+ 0·3
17. Charente	− 1,8	+ 7,5	+ 3,9	+ 5·6	+ 3,0	−13,7	− 8,8	− 2·9
18. Charente-Inférieure	− 8,3	+15,3	+ 5,5	+ 4·7	+ 6,1	−20,6	+15,0	− 4·2
19. Cher	− 1,3	+ 5,3	+ 2,3	+ 2·5	− 3,6	−14,1	− 8,6	− 3·3
20. Corrèze	+ 2,0	+10,0	− 0,8	− 1·5	− 1,9	−17,0	− 0,6	− 0·2
21. Corse	+ 1,1	+ 4,9	+ 7,3	+12·7	− 2,3	− 1,4	− 7,7	− 3·6
22. Côte-d'Or	+ 5,5	+ 9,4	+ 5,4	+ 5·2	− 3,1	− 3,1	− 5,4	− 1·9
23. Côtes-du-Nord	− 5,0	+15,9	+ 0,4	+ 0·7	− 9,0	−42,0	−13,1	− 2·3
24. Creuse	+ 1,1	+ 0,2	+ 0,2	+ 0·8	− 4,5	− 8,3	− 0,5	− 0·2
25. Dordogne	+ 5,1	+ 7,0	+ 2,4	+ 3·7	− 9,6	−15,1	−19,8	− 4·6
26. Doubs	+ 5,9	+ 4,4	+10,1	+11·5	+ 0,4	− 5,0	−14,0	− 6·3
27. Drôme	+ 2,1	+ 4,3	− 7,8	− 8·8	− 3,0	−10,0	−11,0	+ 4·9
28. Eure	− 3,7	+ 4,3	+ 3,5	+ 5·0	+ 4,3	− 5,3	− 2,8	− 0·9
29. Eure-et-Loir	+ 5,3	+ 1,9	+ 9,7	+20·2	− 4,1	− 4,0	− 4,7	− 2·0
30. Finistère	+ 3,7	+12,6	+15,4	+ 9·8	−10,0	−22,2	− 5,7	− 1·0
31. Gard	+ 4,1	− 4,6	+ 5,6	+ 2·8	− 3,3	− 6,4	− 4,6	− 2·1
32. Garonne (Haute-)	+ 5,6	+10,5	+13,9	+ 7·7	−11,1	−10,7	− 9,5	− 3·3
33. Gers	− 6,4	+ 5,4	− 1,6	− 3·4	+ 6,5	− 2,6	− 1,7	− 0·7
34. Gironde	+26,5	+19,8	+35,7	+10·8	− 0,2	− 7,2	− 8,2	− 1·9
35. Hérault	+10,4	+ 4,0	− 1,7	− 0·7	− 1,3	− 6,1	+ 4,2	+ 2·2
36. Ille-et-Vilaine	+ 8,3	+16,0	+ 7,5	+ 5·2	− 8,8	−19,4	−11,7	− 2·5
37. Indre	+ 0,5	+ 8,5	+ 2,1	+ 2·6	− 5,1	−12,6	− 2,9	− 1·4
38. Indre-et-Loire	+ 3,2	+ 5,1	+13,6	+17·5	+ 2,2	− 1,4	− 3,6	− 1·4
39. Isère	+ 7,6	+11,7	+ 4,3	+ 3·3	− 6,9	−14,9	− 7,9	− 1·7
40. Jura	+ 2,4	+ 3,3	+ 1,2	+ 2·0	− 4,6	− 9,5	− 6,4	− 2·8
41. Landes	+ 1,0	+ 7,1	+ 1,9	+ 5·3	−10,1	−22,7	−10,9	− 4·1
42. Loir-et-Cher	+ 1,4	+ 1,9	+ 0,8	+ 1·4	− 3,5	− 3,7	− 2,0	− 0·9
43. Loire	+29,4	+12,3	+ 0,2	+ 0·9	− 9,2	−21,3	−13,5	− 4·4
44. Loire (Haute)	+ 4,0	− 0,4	+ 1,0	+ 1·9	− 9,9	− 5,8	− 3,6	− 1·4
45. Loire-Inférieure	+12,1	+10,4	+ 4,0	+ 2·0	−20,1	−14,1	+ 1,0	+ 0·2
46. Loiret	+10,8	+ 7,5	+ 4,0	+ 3·8	−12,3	− 8,3	− 4,0	− 1·5
47. Lot	− 0,1	+ 3,3	+ 0,5	+ 1·6	− 5,6	− 0,8	− 7,3	− 3·0
48. Lot-et-Garonne	+ 3,7	+ 4,8	+ 3,8	+ 5·3	− 0,8	− 2,5	− 2,5	− 1·0
49. Lozère	+ 1,4	+ 1,0	+ 0,5	+ 3·0	− 3,1	− 1,9	− 7,8	− 6·1
50. Maine-et-Loire	+ 4,8	+18,2	+ 7,4	+ 5·6	− 7,8	−10,2	− 3,8	− 0·9
51. Manche	+ 0,6	+ 1,3	+12,1	+11·6	−10,1	−13,3	−12,6	− 3·0
52. Marne	+14,3	+21,2	+ 0,3	+ 0·1	− 1,0	−11,0	+ 5,7	+ 2·3
53. Marne (Haute-)	+ 1,8	+ 5,3	+ 1,5	+ 2·9	− 2,9	− 3,9	− 7,9	− 4·0
54. Mayenne	+ 3,2	+ 8,8	+ 3,1	+ 4·6	− 5,9	−18,5	− 8,3	− 3·0
55. Meurthe-et-Moselle	+20,1	+20,3	+13,9	+ 9·2	+ 1,7	− 8,4	− 4,4	− 1·6
56. Meuse	+ 2,6	+ 2,7	+ 3,5	+ 6·0	− 2,2	− 7,4	− 0,5	− 0·2
57. Morbihan	+ 1,4	+ 5,9	+ 6,9	+ 7·4	− 5,2	−15,0	−11,7	− 2·7
58. Nièvre	+ 0,7	− 2,9	+ 5,6	+ 8·1	− 4,8	− 5,1	− 9,6	− 3·4
59. Nord	+15,0	+56,4	− 4,1	− 0·4	−18,3	−47,1	+ 2,5	+ 0·4
60. Oise	+10,2	+ 6,7	+ 4,7	+ 5·1	− 6,2	− 2,7	− 3,9	− 1·2
61. Orne	+ 2,0	+ 3,8	+ 2,5	+ 3·3	− 1,3	−13,4	− 4,4	− 1·4
62. Pas-de-Calais	+25,7	+ 2,4	+32,2	+11·6	−23,3	− 8,1	−27,0	− 5·0
63. Puy-de-Dôme	− 1,6	+ 0,3	+10,4	+ 9·1	+ 0,2	− 6,5	− 5,7	− 1·2
64. Pyrénées (Basses)	+ 3,8	+ 7,5	+ 4,9	+ 4·9	− 8,4	−14,7	−14,2	− 4·2
65. „ (Hautes)	+ 4,8	+ 1,9	+ 2,0	+ 4·4	− 4,6	− 5,5	− 4,6	− 2·4
66. „ Orientales	+ 6,5	+ 8,7	− 2,7	− 3·1	− 3,3	− 3,0	+ 1,6	+ 1·4
67. Rhône	+22,2	+54,6	+19,7	+ 4·0	+ 7,7	−16,3	+15,3	+ 6·1
68. Saône (Haute-)	+ 4,5	+ 1,9	− 1,3	− 2·7	− 8,4	−13,1	− 5,3	− 2·1
69. Saône-et-Loire	− 5,3	+18,3	+ 1,3	+ 0·9	+ 1,9	−28,4	−16,7	− 3·4
70. Sarthe	+ 7,8	+ 9,5	+ 9,0	+ 8·9	− 8,2	−11,9	− 8,3	− 2·4
71. Savoie	+ 1,0	+ 2,4	+ 2,9	+ 9·0	− 4,9	− 7,9	− 4,5	− 1·9
72. Savoie (Haute-)	− 0,1	+ 1,9	+ 2,3	+10·7	− 4,7	− 8,1	− 4,7	− 1·8
73. Seine	+163,4	+367,6	+146,6	+ 5·3	− 1,4	+ 2,4	−10,5	−28·4
74. Seine-Inférieure	+16,0	+38,3	+23,6	+ 5·6	−19,8	−31,4	−14,0	− 3·5
75. Seine-et-Marne	+ 4,3	+ 5,6	+ 4,6	+ 5·8	− 0,4	− 4,0	+ 1,6	+ 0·6
76. Seine-et-Oise	+30,7	+20,0	+39,9	+18·9	− 4,4	+ 1,2	+ 5,5	+ 1·5
77. Sèvres (Deux-)	− 2,2	+ 6,1	+ 3,5	+ 7·7	+ 0,2	− 1,5	− 7,1	− 2·3
78. Somme	+10,7	+ 5,0	+ 8,7	+ 5·5	−14,4	−10,0	−10,3	− 2·6
79. Tarn	+10,3	− 2,2	+ 2,5	+ 2·4	−11,6	− 2,5	− 6,1	− 2·4
80. Tarn-et-Garonne	+ 3,0	+ 3,6	+ 3,7	+ 6·0	− 2,1	− 4,4	− 2,8	− 1·8
81. Var	+ 3,1	− 3,6	− 0,2	− 0·1	− 0,3	+ 0,7	+ 2,6	+ 2·1
82. Vaucluse	− 8,6	− 3,0	+ 3,4	+ 3·1	+ 1,3	− 4,1	− 1,9	− 1·4
83. Vendée	+ 4,9	− 6,1	+ 0,5	+ 1·0	− 7,8	+ 0,3	− 2,2	− 0·6
84. Vienne	+ 6,5	+ 3,0	− 0,5	− 0·7	− 4,5	−29,0	− 5,8	− 2·1
85. Vienne (Haute-)	+ 6,2	+ 4,3	+ 3,3	+ 3·3	− 8,7	− 6,9	− 3,4	− 1·4
86. Vosges	− 3,7	− 1,2	+16,6	+25·0	+ 6,6	− 3,9	−13,4	− 4·1
87. Yonne	+ 2,0	+ 3,6	+ 5,2	+ 8·1	− 4,6	− 4,0	− 5,2	− 1·7

(vii.) Widely varying conditions of agriculture in France.

The enormous variation in the natural conditions of agriculture in a country so rich, extensive, and varied as France, and with such varying local customs and traditions, which are rooted in many cases in a historic past, almost precludes the possibility of summary statements as to the conditions of agricultural life. As soon as we pass from consideration of the moral and social to the economic basis of this life, local illustration must be attempted. Broad lines, however, may be first drawn. In the north of France the mode of cultivation called "intensive" fills a much greater place than in the south. Most of the products in the south lend themselves to "extensive" culture, and the application of capital in highly specialised forms is not essential; personal labour has in no direction a greater part to play than in the southern regions.

Prevalence of farming, in the north, of métayage, in the south.

Setting the working proprietors aside, farming is a main characteristic of the north, where the cultivator expects regular results. Towards the south where cultivation is far less regular in its results, *métayage* is the characteristic system. By *métayage* is meant an association in which the proprietor depends on one or more tenants to cultivate his land, while he supplies the most of the necessary capital and directs the work to a certain extent. The *métayer* gives his labour and lends his cattle. The produce is generally divided equally, but the division varies with local custom.(1) In the south the proprietor exercises a much closer control over the operations of the métayer than towards the north. The departments of Gers, Haute-Garonne, Tarn-et-Garonne, Lot-et-Garonne, and the sea border of Landes, as those in which the greatest number of *métayers* are found. Direct farming gains ground wherever the cultivation of the vine predominates; where varied agriculture is found, there *métayage* generally predominates. In the Pyrénées Orientales, the two systems work equally; in the Hautes-Pyrénées property is excessively subdivided and *métagage* almost disappears. Statistics for the whole of France show that there is only one *métayer* for every three farmers, while statistics for 21 southern departments show a proportion varying from 51·80 to 90·89 per cent.(2)

(viii.) Relations between agriculture and industry.

For a general review of agricultural conditions it is important to observe how dependent on the condition of manufacturing industries portions of the agricultural population may sometimes become. The country, equally with the towns, for example, may be affected by a stoppage in the silk industry. Whole districts are given up to the rearing of the silkworm. In these districts the cultivation of the mulberry is also liable to many vicissitudes of its own. The tree and the animal together require a multitude of close minute attentions which can only be given by a trained population. While this highly specialised skill may in prosperous seasons be remunerated at the rate of 40,000 francs a hectare in the year, a bad season may bring ruin. In the wine growing countries conditions of agricultural industry are much more stable.(3) The southern districts are, in general, not equal to the north and west in wealth and density of population, but they have approached in these respects in the last century. Prevailing features of life among day labourers in representative departments may now be pointed out.

(ix.) The Bouches-du-Rhône department.

Beginning with the south and with Provence, the Bouches-du-Rhône department may be selected. In this country, where wheat is the chief product (covering 50,000 hectares) and vines, oats, and olives form the rest of the staple produce, small proprietorship predominates, and in some districts to an extreme degree. In the arrondissement of Marseilles there are 15,700 rural proprietors, and it is rare to find one possessing 40 hectares; the greater part of the lots are bought by workmen or small shopkeepers by dint of great economy. In the arrondissement of Aix the sub-division is still more excessive and seriously affects economic production. A middle-sized property may be broken up into five or six lots inconveniently distant from each other. In seed time and harvest proper control of the work is almost impossible. A great number of the day labourers possess small plots on which they generally work between 4 and 7.30 a.m. before they go to their employer for the day's work. *Métayage* occupies a considerable place in the arrondissement of Aix, and until quite lately the relations between the proprietors and *métayers* were good. Latterly agricultural depression and increasing demands of labour in general have begun to alter these relations for the worse.

Wages in the Marseilles and Aix arrondissements.

Daily wages for a labourer in both the arrondissements cited average 3 francs for a man and 1·50 for a woman, without board. The monthly wage varies from 30 to 50 francs with board. Task work is rare. Subsidiary occupations for the rural population are found in the tiles and potteries works, where 3 francs 50 cents. may be earned by a man and 1 franc 75 cents. by a woman. In the canton of Gardenne there is a considerable movement of the agricultural population into industrial occupations. Out of 3,000 people 600 passed into working of the coal mines. The difficulty of finding hands raises wages there to 5 francs, even in some cases to 7 francs. It is reported that the moral habits of the agricultural population have been affected for the worse by this development.(4)

Wages in the Arles district.

In the arrondissement of Arles, where property is less sub-divided than in Aix, a prevalently high level of comfort is to be found. In a family partly peasant proprietors, partly wage earners, the annual income is about 850 francs (husband 700 francs, wife 150 francs). The expenses would be approximately :—

	Fr.
Lodging	50
Corn	130
Oil	30
Pork	100
Groceries	50
Sundries	150
Total	510

Thus appreciable savings can probably be effected.

Rarity of indigence.

Throughout the Bouches-du-Rhône indigence is rare, although privations may often be hard. Few beggars are seen, and the poor are fully provided for by the *Bureaux de Bienfaisance*. Investment in the savings banks of the department is general and most practised in the specially agricultural cantons.(5) In the department there are 27 agricultural syndicates, of which the largest is at Salon with 209 members. Some of these syndicates offer facilities for investment of savings. There are eight co-operative supply societies. In this, as in other districts, association is making steady progress.(6)

(x.) The Gard department.

The Gard department is growing into a great centre for what is known as *sericiculture* or cultivation of raw silk. It was a great vine district formerly, before the appearance of the *phylloxera*; in 1868 98,942 hectares were planted with the vine, but two-thirds have been replaced by other forms of cultivation. In 1890, 2,279,027 kil. of raw silk or cocoons were produced. This represents 27·7 per cent. of the total produce of France. The population of the department is fairly divided between agricultural and industrial pursuits. There are many mines of great importance, the development of which has been fostered by the exceptional energy and wealth of the Protestant part of the population "which flung itself into industry with the "force given by capital . . . . The development "of that industry gave a new outlet to the activity, "while increasing their wealth. The agricultural "population is still mainly Catholic; in the towns "Protestantism holds a stronger social position on "account of its numerical strength."(7)

Protestants and Catholics.

Nîmes is an important centre of this Protestantism. A profound separation exists between the two populations in ideas and manners, even where they come into contact. The culture of silk seems to hold a middle ground between the two. It is remarked that the conflict or competition of the two religions has not been without its happy effects upon the average level of manners and morality. The agricultural populations are distinguished by the social peace which reigns among them. "Nowhere have sentiments of jealousy "or hatred been known to arise among the poor "against the rich proprietors"(8) during the agricultural depression which was brought about by the double affliction of phylloxera and disease among silk worms (*maladie de vers à soie*). In the arrondissement of Vigan for example the value of property under mulberry trees fell during this period by 60 per cent.; here

Social peace amongst the Catholics.

(1) Dictionnaire d'Économie Politique, Leon Say, Article *Tenure des Terres*.
(2) Les Populations Agricoles, Vol. III. p. 10.
(3) *Ib.*, p. 13.
(4) *Ib.*, p. 133.
(5) *Ib.*, p. 140–1.
(6) Annuaire des Syndicats Agricoles, 1893, pp. 112, and ff
(7) Les Populations Agricoles, Vol. III., p. 289.
(8) *Ib.*, p. 294.

métayage is the prevailing form of land tenure. Throughout the Gard department middle-sized properties are prevalent. Primitive forms of association are to be found uniting the small proprietors and the *métayers;* these have animals and instruments of labour in common. Many proprietors complain of

Wages at Vigan.

scarcity of good day labourers. Wages vary; in the neighbourhood of Nîmes, out of harvest time, a man can earn 2 francs a day in winter and 3 francs in summer (without board). The days last from 8 a.m. to 4 p.m. with two hours' rest included. During the harvest time 5 francs a day may be earned. At Vigan the day's wages without food are, ordinarily, for men 2f. 50c., for women 1f. 50c., and during harvest for the former 5 francs. A carter may earn 500 francs a year with food; a shepherd may earn 600 or 700 francs with food. A certain number of wives and daughters of the rural labourers find employment in the small towns in silk spinning or hat works; others knit woollen or cotton stockings in their own homes. In such ways 1f. 25c. to 1f. 50c. may be earned a day. Everywhere it is affirmed the living and nourishment of the rural labourer has improved. Nearly all the peasants eat meat three times a week and drink coffee; wine is much less drunk than it was before the ravages of the phylloxera. The bread of the country is excellent and the consumption of wheat has notably increased per head. Lodging has improved; the rural workman pays about 60 to 80 francs in rent where he is not proprietor of a small house.

Depopulation, emigration.

Population is diminishing in the Gard department, and this is attributed to voluntary causes. Greater care is shown than formerly in the rearing of children.

Emigration set in after the disease had begun its ravages amongst the silkworms. The population of the Vigan arrondissement was—66,249 in 1851; 64,538 in 1856; 63,396 in 1861: 60,247 in 1866; 59,260 in 1876; 57,272 in 1881; 56,868 in 1886. Since the vines have begun to improve and the disease in silk worms has been checked this tendency has slackened.(1)

Agricultural associations.

There are nine agricultural syndicates in the Gard department, of which one, with its centre at Nîmes, enrolls 1,186 members, another at Alais enrolls 301 members. Both provide agricultural implements and effect sales for their members. The seven co-operative societies of the department include *L'Abeille Nîmoise* founded by M. de Boyve in 1883, which possesses a capital of 33,300 francs.(2)

(vi.) Haute-Garonne.

The next department chosen for illustration is in the south-west, and is the Haute-Garonne, which is in general less fertile and wealthy than the preceding departments. It is readily divided into two parts, one of the mountains and the other of the plains; in the latter the staple produce is of the same character as in the Gard department. The net produce is very much below that of the north-west departments, although the rural population is about three-quarters of the whole.(3)

Characteristics of the people.

The general character of these south-western peasants is distinct. Quickness of perception is universal, occasional manifestations of practical cleverness are to be found in the midst of the more prevalent alternative of indolence. Popular education remained for a long time extremely backward in spite of the brilliancy of the University at Toulouse. But it is beginning to make up for lost time and moral and mental progress are distinctly visible in the populations. Temperance and a sense of personal dignity have gained ground, it is said, at the same time that the rural labourer has obtained greater material comfort.

Growth in population, and migration to towns.

The steady growth of the population is one important index of the material welfare of the country. At the same time a strong movement of the population from the country to the towns must be noted. Few cities have grown more rapidly in proportion to surrounding population than Toulouse. In 1800 it contained 15 per cent. of the total; in 1866 it had risen to 25 per cent. and contained 126,936 inhabitants. At the present day it contains 140,000. "Although " the superior excitement given to certain sorts of " labour in the cities, and the impulse towards pleasure " felt by the rural populations has an important share " in the migration towards towns, it cannot be denied " that their development in our century is traceable " also to natural and general causes which need not be " regretted. . . . Increased facility of transport, " and the progress of agricultural machinery which has " diminished the importance of manual labour, are " among the causes. Another cause of depopulation " of the country must be attributed to agricultural " crises. But it is neither impossible nor improbable " that these various causes may lose their intensity. " If it is so, as we trust, . . . the decrease in the " population which weighs upon us as a menacing " symptom may prove to be only a time of arrest not " without previous examples in history."(4)

Check to the sub-division of properties.

The progress of the movement towards sub-division of property was arrested in the Haute-Garome during the great period of agricultural depression through which it has recently passed. It is only here and there that the land can be said to be excessively sub-divided. From 50 to 80 hectares of land are reckoned a large property. These properties form approximately 1-5th of the land, the average properties 2-5ths, the small 3-6ths. The value of the land tends to rise.

Direct farming.

A tendency is shown for the mode of tenure by *métayage* to pass into that of direct farming. In the arrondissement of Saint Gaudens the proportion of those who directly farm their own land is 19·20, and this is the highest proportion of the department.

Until quite recently the spirit of association was very backward, but some of the syndicates are beginning to do excellent work amongst the small and middle proprietors.(5)

Wages.

There is a greater spirit of economy discoverable amongst the rural labourers of the Haute-Garonne than amongst those of the Lot and Hérault departments, at the same time there is a stronger tendency for wages to rise. Daily wages are 2 francs for a man, 1 franc for a woman. Harvesting and planting are paid by task, and are carried out by couples called *solatiers*, a man and a woman; the daily wage then rises to 4 francs. The yearly income of a labourer's family does not rise above 900 francs, and rarely or never falls below 400 francs. The conditions of nourishment are inferior to those in the other departments considered.

Butcher's meat is very rarely eaten, and the staple food is vegetable. Lodging, however, has greatly improved, and for 80 francs a labourer can lodge his family in a comfortable house with several rooms. A growing tendency to more expensive and less thrifty habits of clothing shows itself here as in the north of France.

Indigence is hardly to be found; a few beggars come occasionally from the mountains, but generally the families are well insured from suffering by mutual aid societies and savings funds. To effect this condition of things, however, it is nearly always necessary for the mothers of families to contribute to the income.(6)

(xii.) Moral traits in the peasantry of the south-west (Guyenne).

In this department, as in those surrounding it, M. Baudrillart discovered moral traits worthy of remark. Especially in the Tarn department(7) and the Agénais district of Lot-et-Garonne, he found energy and pride, and simple, strong manners. He quotes with approval an estimate by M. Veyries of the work in these districts done by the women. "The " strength of this race . . . lies in the women. How " many households we have seen where the wife " supports husband and children; they earn the money " and save it. . . . It is the mothers who instruct their " children, giving them good example and good words " . . . and what a profound sense of religion there is " in these uncultured women. Catholics and Protes- " tants alike, when they are left to follow their own " bent, know how to satisfy their common need of " an ideal, under it matters not what religious " form."(8)

(xiii.) The Haute-Loire department.

The Haute-Loire department is in the fullest sense of the term a land of small proprietorship. About seven-tenths of the agricultural population are small proprietors, in the mountainous districts owning from one or two hectares, in other parts from one to six hectares.

Larger and medium-sized properties have been sold and broken up very often during the agricultural crisis. The owners of them have complained of the burdens of high wages and taxes, and no doubt depression has in some parts led to subdivision of land, but in certain districts this movement has been determined by the intellectual and moral condition of the peasantry, who

(1) *Ib.*, pp. 295-304.
(2) Annuaire des Syndicats Agricoles, pp. 344-54.
(3) Les Populations Agricoles, Vol. III., p. 387.
(4) Les Populations Agricoles, Vol. III., p. 400.
(5) *Ib.*, pp. 401-5. Ann. des Synd. Agr., p. 355-6.
(6) Les Populations Agricoles, Vol. III., pp. 406-8.
(7) *Ib.*, p. 423.
(8) *Ib.*, p. 637.

are active, intelligent, and businesslike. The men carry on trade in cattle and the women make lace, and the young men in winter or in times of want of employment migrate temporarily to other districts and return with savings to their homes.

In 10,000 hectares of land the average number of farms will be 258, and of *métayages* 32. In the same district there would be on an average 273 day labourers and 508 farm servants. Amongst all the classes of day labourers proprietors of small pieces of land are to be found. Here, as elsewhere, the *métayer* may own part of the land he works upon. Out of 1,864 agricultural workers of all sorts 61 per cent. will be proprietors.

The tenancy of the farmers is most stable under the large proprietors. On the middle-sized properties a farm rarely descends from father to son. "The farms "and *métairies* leave much to be desired in the matter "of buildings and situation."(1) Model arrangements may be found on certain large properties, but unfortunately their example is the less inspiring because the landlords have lost money in the attempts. "In time these "examples starting from above will produce their fruit. "We have discovered the existence of a considerable "number of large proprietors in the Haute-Loire who "understand their duty in a noble sense. We have met "one of these men . . . the moral authorities of a country ". . . types of governing classes, . . . models of "courtesy and practical intelligence, faithfully attached to religious and family traditions, and at the "same time accessible to ideas of intellectual and "social progress. These are the elements of strength "and security for a country which knows how to turn "them to account."(2)

A great difference is announced as existing between labourers employed by the day and labourers employed by the task in the Haute-Loire, especially towards the Auvergne mountains. In the mining districts the agricultural labourer pure and simple is scarcely to be found, for he generally works in the mines at night The very small proprietors often earn in the same way from 4 to 5 francs daily. In general the mining industry has had the effect of raising wages in surrounding districts. The wages of an ordinary rural day labourer have risen more than 50 per cent. since 1830, on an average all over the Haute-Loire, but there are districts where the rise has been much less.

At task work an agricultural labourer may earn 5f. 50c. by working from 5 a.m. to 7 p.m. This is mainly during harvest time. The farmers often arrange for this work through an intermediary who controls and provides food for the workers. During the main part of the year a day labourer earns from 3 to 4 francs, and a woman from 1f. 75c. to 2 francs, without food, with food the rates are 2f. 50c. and 1f. 25c. The tendency is to adopt the former system. The women work a good deal in their own homes at *passementerie* and lace-making, and may earn in this way from 2f. 50c. to 3 francs a day, the work being paid by the piece and each model having a different price.

By the finer sorts of lace a woman may earn 4 francs a day, and they often give themselves up with such ardour to the work that household duties have to be fulfilled by the men. The race, it is said, begins to show traces of loss of health and strength through excessive work (which has increased since development of the mining industry), accompanied by insufficient feeding, but it may still be called robust. House room is dear and low in standard. Cleanliness and convenience are greatly to be sought. Towards the mountains the dwellings often consist of one large apartment, and animals and men go in and out by the same door. In Velay and other arrondissements the peasants are proprietors of their dwellings. Rents vary from 40 to 100 francs.(3)

(xiv.) The Sarthe department (Maine).

Passing to the North of France, and beginning with the Maine districts, the Sarthe department may be selected for illustration.

Large farms are rare, those covering from four to ten hectares predominate. Proprietors generally hold land extending over 10 to 25 hectares. Large properties, i.e., of not less than 80 hectares, cover only one-tenth of the department, small properties about six-tenths. If a farm is less than eight hectares it is locally known as a *bordage*.

(1) Les Populations Agricoles, Vol. II., p 591.
(2) *Ib.*, p. 592.
(3) *Ib.*, pp. 592–99.

The agricultural depression has greatly affected the large proprietors. A marked tendency is to be seen towards extension of the peasant proprietorship system. This has naturally been accompanied by a decrease of the number of day labourers pure and simple; but a very large number of the peasant proprietors undertake wage paid labour.

Material progress.

The working classes generally in the Sarthe have achieved great material progress. The staple food consists of good bread, meat, pork, and dairy produce in sufficient quantity to maintain a vigorous race. Although farmhouses have improved, however, the dwellings of the agricultural labourer and small peasant proprietors have not made equal progress. Some of them possess their own houses, and yet let them for 50 and even 20 francs a year. Wages apparently did not rise in 1888 above 3 francs a day for a man, without food, and 2 francs with food; 2 francs and 1f. 25c. similarly for a woman. Twenty years ago these figures would have been 1f. 17c. and 64c. for a man and 82c. and 43c. for a woman; food is thus evidently cheap. In 1888 farm servants' wages were: men 300 to 400 francs a year, boys 120 to 200 francs, women 150 to 250 francs.

A large number of the agricultural labourers increase their earnings by subsidiary occupations, such as weaving, flax spinning, manufacture of sabots. A family income may be increased by these means by 221frs.

The spirit of saving has received an impetus by the increase in earnings, at least amongst the older members of the communities. Amongst the youthful members a spirit of extravagance and search after pleasure is at the same time noticeable. This is one of the departments where immigration takes place during certain seasons of the year. At harvest time 1,000 or more men and more than 500 women may temporarily drift in. Nevertheless a steady emigration of agricultural labourers goes on all the year round. The numbers were estimated as averaging 4,760 men and 3,515 women by M. Baudrillart in 1888.(4) The chief products are: wheat, covering 77,912 hectares; rye, 21,229 hectares; oats, 36,246 hectares; potatoes, 40,678 hectares; beetroot, for fodder, 8,856 hectares; vines, 9,100 hectares. Cider is much more largely produced than wine; in 1890 54,485 hectolitres of wine and 143,330 hectolitres of cider were produced. There are a good many agricultural syndicates of considerable size. One of the most important includes workmen and farmers (855 members), and was founded in 1886 at Sablé. The largest is at Mans, founded in the same year, and enrolls now 5,500 members. Co-operative bakeries are extending.(5)

(xv.) Indre-et-Loire (Touraine).

In the neighbouring department of Indre-et-Loire *métayage* still holds a considerable place. Both proprietors and farmers have suffered here from agricultural depression, but the wages of the day labourer have not only been maintained, they have increased. This was shown by the agricultural inquiry of 1866, and has been since proved to continue. The attractions of the towns Tours and Paris have drawn so many hands steadily away that the remuneration of those remaining was bound to increase. Emigration to foreign countries is extremely rare.(6)

Day labourers earn from 2f. 50c. to 5 francs and women from 2 to 2f. 50c. without food. A worker among the vines may earn 900 francs a year, a young carter 600 francs with food. Wood cutters' wages are 5 to 6 francs a day. There is a passion amongst the people of this country (*paysans tourangeaux*) for ownership of their own homes. The peasant proprietor furnishes his house with the greatest care, and there are few mistresses of farms who do not maintain a high standard of cleanliness and comfort within them. The greater part of the day labourers own small houses, with a carefully tended plot of ground. There is only a small amount of indigence in Touraine. In 1884 there were 118 communes with boards of charity (*bureaux de bienfaisance*) dispensing 180,000 francs annually, very largely for infirmity and sick relief at home. The general hospital at Tours provides skilled treatment for those who cannot properly be treated at home. The Conseil Général of the department votes 1,200 francs annually for the purpose of sending poor convalescents to watering places. A *dépôt de mendicité* (7) and orphanages are well supported. M. Baudrillart pointed out in 1888 that the

(4) Les Populations Agricoles, Vol. II., p. 28.
(5) Annuaire des Syndicats Agricoles, pp. 862–82.
(6) Les Populations Agricoles, Vol. II., p. 140 and ff.
(7) Cf. infra, pp. 85–6.

peasantry had only just begun to systematically develop provident and mutual aid societies, but the movement showed promise.(1)

(xvi.) North-west of France.

Passing to the extreme north-west of France to Artois and Picardy, or the Pas-de-Calais and Nord departments, we have to consider a country which is thickly scattered over with industrial centres.

In Picardy, as in Normandy, there is a considerable number of large proprietors and a multitude of peasant proprietors, who form the democracy of the land. In Artois middle-sized properties prevail, and the land is largely cultivated by tenant farmers on small farms.

Land tenure.

The following are the proportions in Artois: peasant proprietors 30 per cent. of the land, middle-sized properties 50 per cent., large properties 20 per cent.

In this part of France, as in the other widely diverse parts, which have been here so rapidly surveyed, there is properly no agrarian question. The relations between farmers and proprietors are apparently very satisfactory. M. Baudrillart attributes the peace which generally prevails to the Civil Code, which "has been a great "instrument for pacification in our countries."

The Civil Code.

It regulates the conditions of lease (*les conditions du bail à ferme*) in a precise, clear, and equitable manner. "This advantage, which can hardly be "estimated too highly, joined to division of property, "has created the fundamental accord of interests "in the heart of the agricultural classes which "is too often forgotten when critics begin to talk."(2) Certain exceptions to the general rule of peace have been noted in questions arising out of the exact limits of properties in Artois and Picardy.(3)

Wages.

It is peculiarly difficult to arrive at an exact estimate of the real wages of agricultural labour in Artois. Almost everywhere there are opportunities for adding to the wage of field labour. This has been increased, as in other parts, through the competition of industrial occupations for labour.

The mines have exercised a strong attraction for labourers about the collieries of Bethune. There better lodging can be found, and many advantages in the way of provident and mutual aid funds. While a marked migration of agricultural labourers to the industrial centres has progressed "it can hardly be said that there "are fewer agriculturists in the country"; the progress towards peasant proprietorship has been irresistible. The peasant proprietor works not only on his own land, but on other lands, and in winter in different factories, *e.g.*, in breweries and sugar factories. Field labour was paid at the rate of 3 francs a day in 1888; workers in breweries can make 30 francs a month; a labourer going into a sugar factory in winter may earn 4 or 5 francs, and a woman 3 francs or more.

In spite of the movement of agricultural labourers, the factories employ a large number of Belgian workmen, who are thrifty and steady. These workmen live wholly in the open air during summer, sleeping at night on beds of straw. Good lodging is attainable by the native workers, rural and industrial, at sufficiently moderate rates, and the general standard of living has improved Still indigence is one of the distressing features in this part of the country. M. Baudrillart remarked in 1888 that in certain villages one tenth of the population received assistance, and that beggary was too frequent.(4)

Standard of living.

The Nord department, and semi-rural manners.

In Picardy (Nord department) manners, it is stated, have suffered from the crowding of workers in semi-rural, semi-industrial centres. Immorality, criminality, drunkenness, are far rarer in the purely agricultural than in the urban districts. The control of public opinion operates in a stronger degree in the country, where each person is known by all. Such misdemeanours as are found there are far more often to be attributed to impulse than to premeditation.(5) In the districts surrounding Amiens a floating population is found which manifests many of the faults and vices belonging to the towns. The young people, who formerly would have spent their holiday time in simple open air amusements, such as dancing and sports, now crowd into the cafés and gambling saloons.(6)

With a decrease in stability of habits and customs a slackening of the friendly bonds between the workers and their employers in semi-rural districts is to be observed, as it is also in Normandy. "The relations "between masters and servants have certainly become "more difficult. . . . One finds in these parts a "pale reflection of the conflicts dividing capital and "labour" in industrial centres.(7) That respect for property is weakened in a certain degree in spite of the widely extended ownership of property, is shown by an increase in statistics of thefts.

(xvii.) Comparison of Normandy with Brittany.

Comparison of the agricultural situation in Normandy and Brittany presents immediately a startling contrast in the matter of growth of population. In the former a steady and striking decrease is to be found, in the latter a still steadier and greater increase. From 1872 to 1876 Normandy lost 10,175 souls, while in the same period Brittany gained 66,470.

During the same period are to be noted the steady growth of manufactures and the transformation of much arable into grazing land in Normandy, and in Brittany the inverse process in respect of agriculture, with a continued paucity of manufactures.

migration and decrease in population in Normandy.

A number of causes have operated, in the view of M. Baudrillart, to produce the decrease in Normandy. The increased mortality among workers in industrial centres he rejects as a cause of inadequate importance to explain facts by itself, and in the matter of agricultural land, in spite of an increase of pasturage, Normandy still remains for the immensely greater part "a land for labourers and not for shepherds."(8) In 1885 in the department of La Manche, for instance, out of 432,000 hectares only 92,000 hectares were given over to grass. The decrease is due, M. Baudrillart holds: first, to decrease in the birth rate; second, to emigration; third, to an increase in mortality. All three causes have worked to the detriment of the agricultural situation. "When the rural labourer "leaves his native country it is seldom that it is not "an unfortunate circumstance for agriculture. . . . "In the Orne department 9,000 or 10,000 workers "emigrated, some to carry on a retail trade in Paris, "some to travel round the country as pedlars, col-"porteurs, &c. . . . When such emigration tends "only to raise earnings of those remaining, and to "produce habits of thrift and saving it is not regret-"table. When it means immigration of strange labour ". . . with a tendency to substitute manners of "nomads for those of a stable population . . . it "is hurtful to the morality and well-being of the "country."(9) As a matter of fact, in many departments of Normandy the labour has to be replaced not only by immigration from other parts of France, but from abroad.

Immigration.

In the Eure department, farmers directly import Belgian labour. These are good workers, but are less sober than the natives. Swiss are also largely employed.(10) Of natives from other departments many come from Artois, for short contracts. The introduction of machinery has diminished the necessity for apprenticeship to a great part of agricultural labour; it often reduces a man's task to a purely muscular effort and soldiers are increasingly employed in work, which is accomplished by the aid of simple machinery.

Wages in Normandy.

In no part of France is the increase in rates of wages more striking than throughout the greater part of Normandy. An inferior day-labourer could earn 3 francs a day, and piece-workers could earn 5 francs in a day in 1885; mowers earned 3 to 4 francs, and reapers 5f. 50c. to 6 francs; but their day was 13 or 14 hours.

In certain districts a considerable addition can be made to agricultural wages by weaving and other industrial occupations. "It is not at all rare for a "labourer to bring his daily earnings up to 7 or 8 "francs, and, more rarely, even to 10 francs, food "included, during harvest."(11) This was especially noted in the arrondissement of Bernay. The work in their own homes of the women, on the celebrated embroidery on tulle, was formerly a source of wealth to the simplest villagers, but it has latterly greatly decayed, to the loss in many cases, of family manners and wellbeing. The women who would have been employed in this way migrate to seek employment as farm servants in districts remote from their homes.

(1) Les Populations Agricoles, Vol. II., p. 149-50.
(2) *Ib.*, p. 353.
(3) *Ib.*, p. 354.
(4) *Ib.*, p. 365.
(5) *Ib.*, pp. 380 and ff.
(6) *Ib.*, p. 383.
(7) Les Populations Agricoles, Vol. II., p. 391.
(8) *Ib.*, Vol. I., 1885, p. 520-3.
(9) *Ib.*, p. 325.
(10) Cf. supra p. 14.
(11) Les Populations Agricoles, Vol. I., p. 336.

Friction between employers and employed.

The constant movement of labour in Normandy has tended to bring about a greater friction between the agricultural labourer and his employer than in most other parts of France. The labourer is in general more exacting in demands and capricious as to fulfilment of his contracts, than elsewhere.(1) Certain farmers have attempted to enforce a system of certificates of character, or rather of condition, stating the antecedents of applicants for employment. Most proprietors and farmers have declared in favour of some such system. It seems unlikely that it can be strictly enforced in times and districts where the labour is in great request.

Standard of living.

Remarkable variations are to be discovered in the standard of living. In the Eure department it reaches perhaps its highest level. Meat, good bread, fruit, vegetables and dairy produce are plentifully supplied to the labourer, who is fed at the farms. An employer who did not do so would find difficulty in obtaining service. In Calvados, Orne, and Marne departments the standard is not so good. The quantity is not inferior, but variety is lacking in the articles of food. The cider in most parts is good, but in certain districts is sour and not wholesome. Lodging is perceptibly improving in most directions.(2)

Development of associations required.

There is a great field for development of mutual aid societies in most country places in Normandy, and M. Baudrillart believes that association for such purposes might do much to check emigration. The *bureaux de bienfaisance* are inadequate to cope with the indigence among the labourers. Special measures have had to be adopted for the repression of mendicity in certain departments, notably in the Orne. The new law for free medical assistance may do much for the indigent sick.(3)

(xviii.) Peasant proprietorship in Brittany.

In Brittany the number of peasant proprietors has increased as steadily in the last 40 years as at any time since the Revolution. Nevertheless "large proprietors "continue to form an *élite*, who preserve an influence "which is greater or less according as the proprietor "lives on his own land or far from it."(4)

More often than not the peasant proprietor of Brittany presents the traits of an agricultural labourer rather than that of an employer. He is, generally, simply a a rural labourer living only partly on a revenue which is less than half of his earnings in wages. Some of the most interesting agricultural types may be studied in the extreme west of Brittany in the Finisterre department. A special feature of the country about Roscoff, Morlaix, and Brest is the thriving market gardening that is carried on. Here the peasant proprietor is generally prosperous. A little further to the east, at Guingamp in the next department (Côtes-du-Nord), there has been a sensible growth in welibeing together with a general progress in methods of cultivation; poverty may still, however, be considered as prevalent. A day labourer rarely earns 1fr. (with food) on a farm. If he provides his own food it is generally poor in quality. The poorest live almost exclusively on potatoes, *bouillie de sarrasin*(5), and coarse cakes without butter.(6) The cottages are narrow, low and dark, and rents for the poorest of them range from 25 to 30 francs a year. The most prosperous wage earner may pay 60 francs for his dwelling. The women add to the family income by spinning, and may earn in this way 20 centimes (2*d.*) a day.

In the Ille-et-Vilaine department the standard of living is higher, and *sarrasin* is generally only used for bread when mixed with proper flour. A similar improvement is to be noted in the Loire-Inférieure. There is throughout Brittany a competition amongst wage-paid labourers which prevents such a marked rise in wages as must be recognised almost everywhere else in France.(7)

Two general vices afflict Brittany in a marked degree, inveterate begging and drunkenness. Indigence proves a more pressing problem here than in any other province.

(*c.*) Textiles and Miscellaneous Industries.

1. Wages (*a.*) Inquiry instituted by the "Office du Travail."

Statistics of wages in the larger and in the small industries for the department of the Seine, prepared by the *Office du Travail* will be published very shortly. A thoroughly organised inquiry has been in progress for some time, which will eventually produce statistics covering all the important manufacturing districts of France. The method adopted differs from that of previous inquiries of the same nature.(8) The figures which will appear in the report have been prepared by delegate commissioners who have made minute inquiries in certain industrial establishments and have drawn up average statements from the manufacturers' books. Formerly the method was to check general statements of manufacturers by means of local commissions. This was unsatisfactory, because the local commissions could not be sufficiently representative and official to produce really trustworthy proof of the figures. In Paris and the Seine department the delegate Commisssioners have been: (1) the permanent staff of the labour office; (2) as assistants, certain outside workers of known capacity; (3) the engineers of bridges and causeways and the mines (by permission of the Minister of Public Works). These latter have done the most important part of the inquiry. The detailed statements drawn up as to the condition of the establishments consist of 17 columns giving—nature of industry, locality, average working days of the establishment, classes of workers, number of days worked by each category of workers, whether work is by piece or by time, amounts earned by certain given lengths of hours; and so on. The inquiry is most exhaustive.

About 470 industrial establishments, employing 60,000 workers, have been examined for the Seine.

Piece-work.

A full third of the workers, 33 per cent. of the men, 50 per cent. of the women, work by piece. This method is rarest in the building trade and most common in the cabinet-making trades. The rate of wages paid for it is generally higher than the rate for time work.

The inquiry seems to show that, setting extremes and exceptional cases aside, any man exercising a skilled trade (*métier*) in the department of the Seine may earn from 7 to 10 francs by a day of about ten hours. An ordinary unskilled labourer may earn from 4f. 50c. to 6f. 50c. Women's wages hardly reach half of men's wages, they run, ordinarily, from 2f. 50c. to 3f. 50c. for fairly skilled work. Children and young workers by ten hours' work may earn from 1 franc to 3f. 50c.

Foremen gain an average wage of 250 to 300 francs a month, in some cases their wages are below those of highly skilled labourers; these may gain from 13 to 20 francs a day.

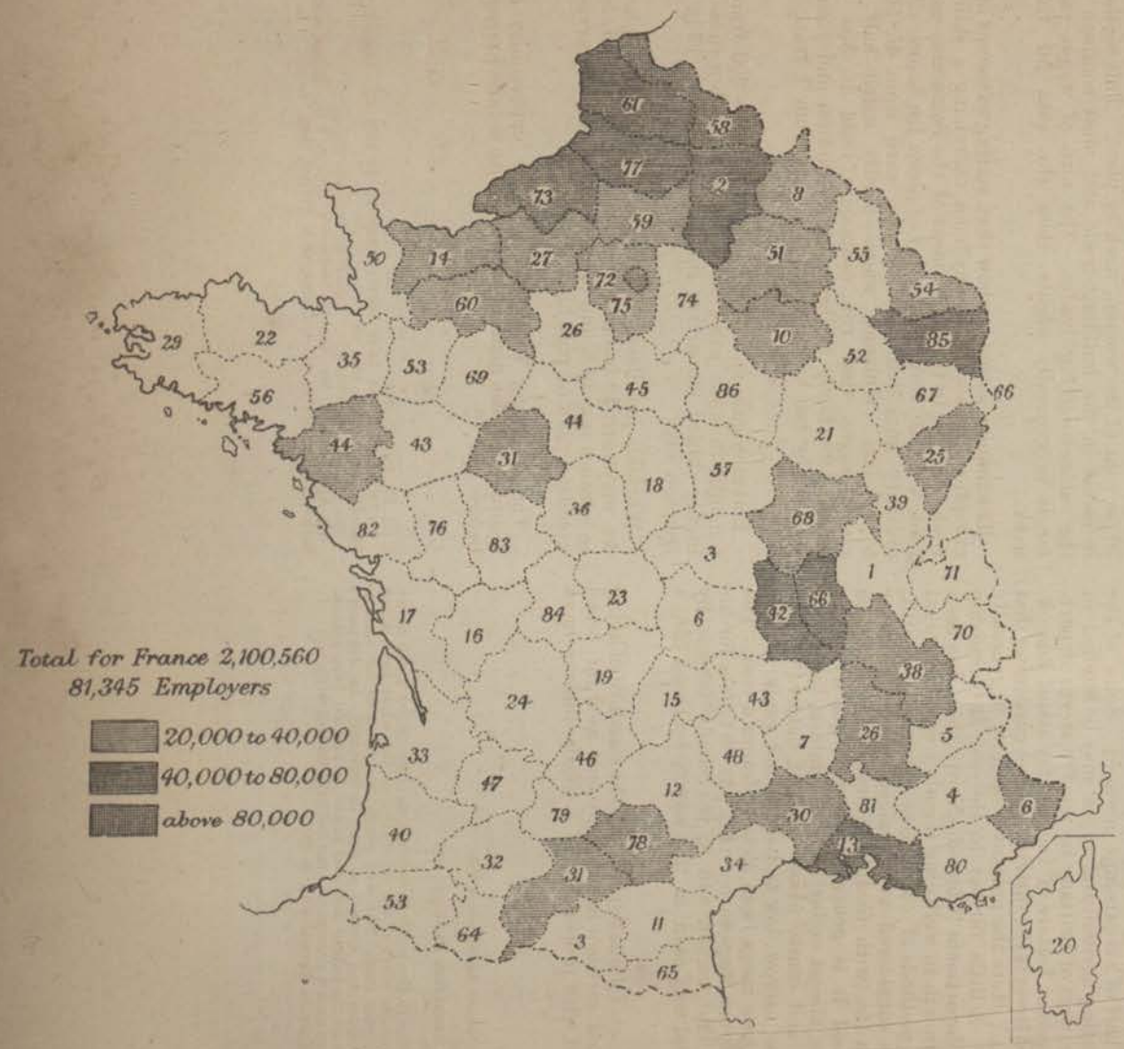
Working jewellers, workers in metal, typographers, &c. may earn 10 francs a day. At the rate of 8f. 50c. to 9 francs may be found piece-workers at wood carving, upholstery, stone polishing, &c.

(*b.*) Statistics drawn from earlier inquiries.

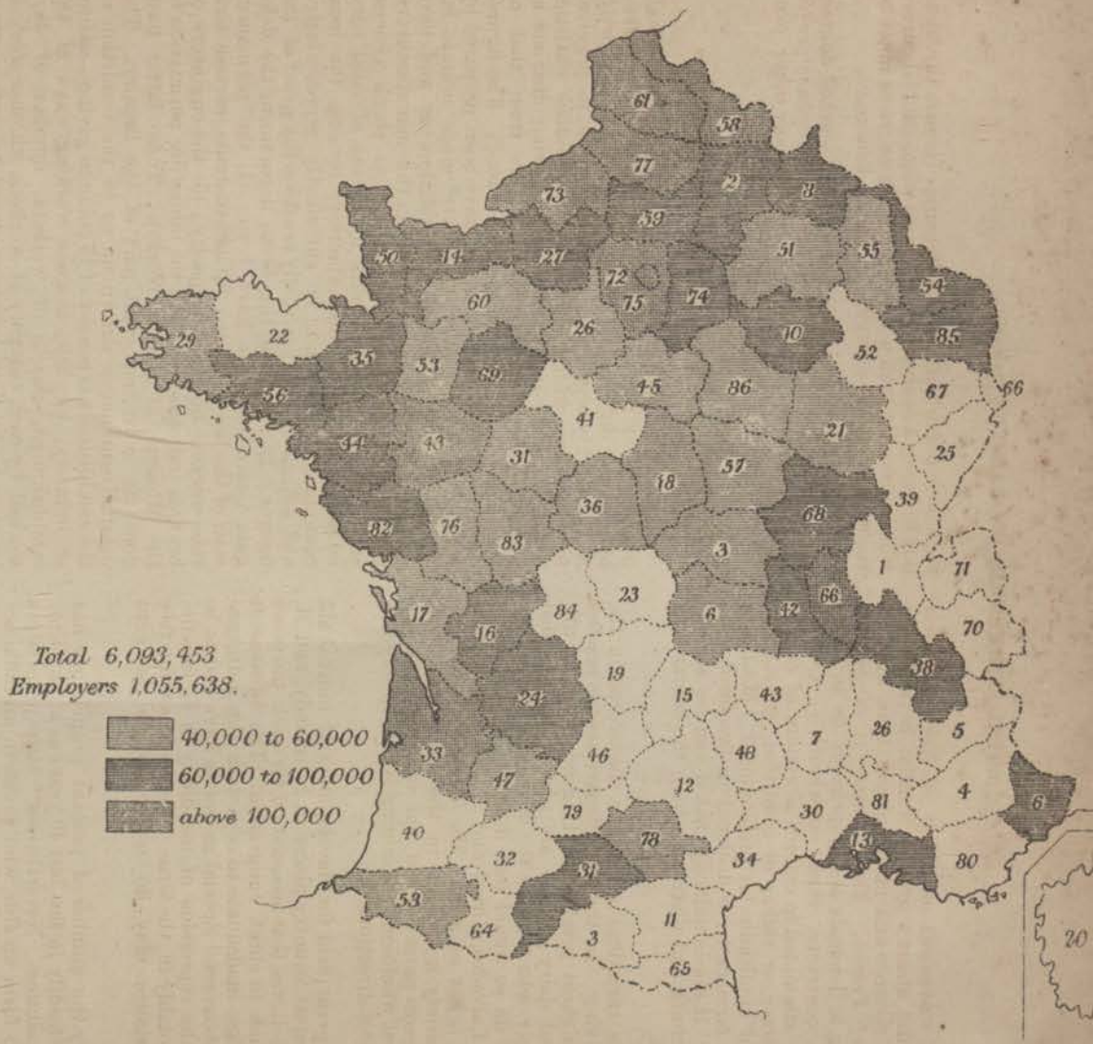
The following table will give an opportunity for comparing these general averages with details prepared before 1885.(9)

(1) Les Populations Agricoles, p. 333.
(2) *Ib.*, p. 340-1.
(3) Cf. infra *Assistance Publique*, p. 3.
(4) *Ib.*, p. 497.
(5) No traveller in the north of Brittany can have failed to be struck with the picturesque effect of the cultivation of this white herb which produces such poor food. The seed which is only used for animals elsewhere is ground and treated as flour in Brittany. Dr. Johnson's famous dictum on the oats of Scotland might be applied here without laying it open to such a prompt and fair retort as he met with.
(6) Les Populations Agricoles cit. p. 609.
(7) *Ib.*, pp. 608-629.
(8) Other inquiries have been: Enquête de 1835-47; Enquête de 1835-55; Enquête de 1861-65.
See "La Réforme Sociale" August 16, 1893, pp. 322-44.
(9) Appendix to Mr. Condie Stephen's Report F.O. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, Statistique Générale de la France, 1885.

MAPS REPRODUCED FROM LEVASSEUR *(Population Française, Vol. I. 1889. p.p. 368-9.)*



I. Map shewing the distribution by departments, of persons engaged in large industries exclusive of mining & metallurgic industries, 1881.



II. Map shewing distribution by departments, of persons engaged in small industries, 1881.

Judd & Co Ltd, Lith. 63, Carter Lane, Doctors' Commons. 5322. II

TABLE XXIXA.

WAGES in GREAT INDUSTRIES in 1885, not including those connected with MINES and METALLURGY.

Numbers.	Description of Industries.	DEPARTMENT OF THE SEINE. Daily Pay of Workmen without Board.										OTHER DEPARTMENTS. Daily Pay of Workmen without Board.									
				Workmen Properly so Called.										Workmen Properly so Called.							
				Men.			Children.							Men.			Children.				
		Foremen.	Overlookers, Markers.	Over 21 Years.	From 15 to 21 Years.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Engine Drivers, Machinists.	Journeymen, Labourers, Carters, &c.	Hours of Labour in Works.	Foremen.	Overlookers, Markers.	Over 21 Years.	From 15 to 21 Years.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Engine Drivers, Machinists.	Journeymen, Labourers, Carters, &c.	Hours of Labour in Works.
		Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Days	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Days
	PREPARATION AND TRANSFORMATION OF MINERAL SUBSTANCES. METALS NOT INCLUDED.																				
1	Marble and stone saw works	7 25	—	5 85	5 00	—	—	—	6 25	4 50	343	5 10	4 20	3 70	2 45	1 25	1 25	0 80	3 70	2 90	300
2	Lime kilns	6 40	5 25	4 65	3 50	2 25	—	—	5 05	4 25	302	4 50	3 90	3 25	2 23	1 60	1 40	0 90	3 85	2 93	280
3	Brick and tile yards	7 00	5 45	4 90	3 35	2 75	1 85	—	5 50	4 50	305	4 70	3 90	3 40	2 30	1 78	1 40	1 10	3 85	2 95	260
4	Porcelain and stoneware factories.	7 35	5 50	4 65	3 25	2 70	1 70	1 40	5 10	4 35	298	6 00	4 50	3 90	2 50	1 76	1 25	1 10	4 00	2 95	295
5	Glass and crystal factories	6 75	5 25	4 70	2 95	2 75	1 85	1 50	5 10	4 15	334	6 70	4 80	5 30	3 25	1 70	1 40	1 10	4 05	2 95	300
6	Looking-glass factories	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	8 10	4 80	4 10	2 75	1 60	1 20	1 00	3 60	2 76	325
	WOOD, LEATHER AND PAPER.																				
7	Wood saw yards	6 60	4 75	4 56	4 50	2 50	2 25	—	5 75	4 80	327	5 10	4 30	3 60	2 45	1 50	1 35	1 00	4 20	3 15	290
8	Tanneries	7 75	6 00	5 75	4 10	2 45	2 00	—	6 25	4 95	313	5 00	4 10	3 70	2 55	1 65	1 40	0 75	4 00	2 95	305
9	Paper and cardboard factories	6 95	5 70	5 10	3 30	2 50	1 60	1 35	5 65	4 60	313	5 10	3 90	3 20	2 20	1 60	1 30	0 95	3 75	2 75	310
10	Wall paper factories	8 15	6 35	6 00	3 65	3 10	2 05	1 00	6 25	4 75	301	5 80	4 20	3 90	2 60	1 95	1 25	1 15	5 30	3 10	310
	CHEMICAL PRODUCTS.																				
11	Gas works	7 50	5 50	8 50	4 50	3 00	2 50	—	5 50	4 50	365	5 40	4 25	3 50	2 55	1 65	1 45	0 50	4 25	3 15	365
12	Stearine candle factories	7 00	5 10	4 70	3 00	2 50	1 75	1 65	5 85	4 50	333	4 90	4 10	2 25	2 25	1 80	1 35	1 10	4 10	3 20	300
13	Soap works	6 80	5 50	4 60	3 30	2 45	1 55	1 55	5 60	4 55	316	5 50	4 00	3 40	2 40	1 75	1 30	1 25	4 45	3 15	305
14	Chemical products in general	6 75	5 40	4 95	3 25	2 45	1 35	1 00	5 75	4 60	309	5 60	4 25	3 45	2 50	1 85	1 45	1 15	3 95	3 20	320
	ARTICLES OF FOOD.																				
15	Sugar refineries	8 25	5 25	4 75	3 25	2 65	2 25	—	5 25	4 00	344	6 10	4 70	3 75	2 60	2 10	1 80	1 50	4 20	3 15	290
16	Native sugar refineries	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6 36	4 80	3 95	2 75	2 05	1 60	1 30	4 30	3 20	110
17	Flour mills, paste factories	6 75	5 50	5 00	3 25	2 55	1 60	1 65	5 80	4 70	286	5 10	4 00	3 40	2 45	1 65	1 30	1 15	4 10	3 25	319
	TEXTILE FACTORIES.																				
18	Raw silk spinning mills	7 50	—	5 50	2 50	3 00	1 50	—	5 25	5 00	310	4 80	3 50	3 10	2 10	1 65	1 20	1 00	3 75	2 75	280
19	Cotton spinning	7 90	4 65	5 75	3 35	3 05	1 85	1 60	5 80	4 60	283	5 30	4 00	3 35	2 30	1 95	1 35	1 15	4 05	2 90	298
20	Wool spinning	7 00	4 85	4 75	2 50	2 85	1 50	1 25	5 15	3 35	282	5 10	3 95	3 25	3 25	1 85	1 25	1 05	3 90	2 95	292
21	Hemp and flax spinning	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5 40	4 00	3 30	2 20	1 95	1 25	1 10	4 10	2 95	295
22	Rope works	6 10	—	5 00	3 25	2 00	2 00	1 25	5 55	4 00	309	4 50	3 85	3 20	2 15	1 65	1 20	1 00	3 95	2 95	295
23	Silk weaving	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5 10	4 35	3 20	2 20	1 85	1 25	1 15	3 85	2 85	296
24	Cotton, hemp, and flax weaving	8 00	—	6 50	3 75	2 25	1 75	1 50	7 00	—	220	5 25	4 35	3 30	2 30	2 05	1 40	1 20	3 75	2 80	300
25	Wool weaving	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5 25	3 95	3 28	2 25	1 95	1 30	1 10	3 85	2 85	297
26	Cloth and blanket factories	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5 10	4 05	3 30	2 35	1 85	1 40	1 10	4 00	2 95	285
27	Shawl factories	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6 90	6 25	4 10	2 75	1 75	1 05	0 90	—	—	279
28	Dye and calendering works	7 55	5 75	5 20	3 50	2 75	1 85	1 75	5 70	4 70	277	5 30	4 35	3 45	2 30	1 95	1 40	1 10	4 25	2 10	297
29	Haberdashery and trimming factories.	6 40	—	5 35	3 50	2 75	1 50	1 25	5 50	5 00	267	5 00	4 45	3 75	2 65	1 85	1 25	1 00	4 45	3 05	296
30	Felt hat factories	9 05	5 50	5 90	9 15	2 95	1 35	1 25	5 85	4 20	271	5 50	4 50	3 75	2 65	1 75	1 35	1 20	4 10	3 00	290
	General average, 1887	7 25	5 40	5 13	3 46	2 65	1 79	1 40	5 67	4 54	302	5 45	4 27	3 53	2 50	1 72	1 32	1 06	4 05	2 95	293
	RECAPITULATION OF YEARS.																				
	1886	7 27	5 36	5 01	3 38	2 63	1 79	1 39	5 67	4 61	311	5 47	4 27	3 56	2 42	1 79	1 33	1 06	4 04	2 94	299
	1885	7 51	5 53	5 45	3 48	2 66	1 86	1 52	5 72	4 70	306	5 45	4 29	3 58	2 49	1 77	1 33	1 07	4 16	2 98	291
	1884	7 40	5 63	5 33	3 50	2 58	1 80	1 51	5 71	4 37	312	5 40	4 24	3 56	2 44	1 79	1 35	1 09	4 04	2 78	290
	1883	7 45	5 66	5 26	3 53	2 68	1 98	1 62	5 73	4 62	314	5 44	4 25	55	2 43	1 80	1 35	1 10	4 06	2 98	291

TABLE XXIXB.—AVERAGE WAGES in GREAT INDUSTRIES.

	Men.					Women.				
	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.
Department of the Seine -	5 27	5 26	5 33	5 32	5 32	2 67	2 70	2 68	2 67	2 67
Other departments - -	3 54	3 51	3 55	3 55	3 54	4 76	1 78	1 80	1 80	1 80

TABLE XXIXC.—AVERAGE WAGES in GREAT INDUSTRIES.

Workmen.	Wages.									
	Department of the Seine.					Other Departments.				
	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.
Foremen - -	6 95	7 03	7 45	7 15	7 13	5 40	5 41	5 44	5 42	5 43
Overlookers - - -	5 53	5 63	5 66	5 55	5 53	4 14	4 22	4 25	4 23	4 29
Workmen, properly so-called—										
Over 21 years - - -	5 27	5 26	5 33	5 10	5 35	3 54	3 51	3 55	3 50	3 55
From 15 years to 21 years -	3 50	3 43	3 53	3 50	3 48	2 35	2 38	2 43	2 43	2 45
Women - - - -	2 67	2 70	2 68	2 60	2 66	1 76	1 78	1 80	1 80	1 78
Children—										
Boys - - - -	1 78	1 87	1 98	1 80	1 85	1 31	1 33	1 35	1 34	1 33
Girls - - - -	1 45	1 47	1 62	1 60	1 52	1 06	1 08	1 10	1 10	1 07
Engine drivers, machinists -	5 61	5 73	5 73	5 60	5 72	3 96	4 06	4 06	4 01	4 06
Journeymen, labourers, carters, &c. - - - - -	4 19	4 54	4 62	4 60	4 68	2 85	2 94	2 98	2 97	2 95

Hours.

The inquiry above referred to has shown that an eight hours' day is altogether exceptional. For the Seine department it was found in only 2 per cent. of the cases, and of these half were State or Municipal undertakings.

In more than half of the establishments the hours are from 9½ to 10 hours; in nearly one-third they are from 10½ to 11 hours. Days of 8½ to 9 hours and 11½ to 12 hours are comparatively rare. The law and custom equally militate against a day's work exceeding 12 hours, and such cases are very rarely found; they appear to be chiefly in dyeing works, the book trades, and a few State factories; at the outside these are not more than 5 per cent. of the cases examined.

In two-thirds of the cases examined by the delegates for the Labour Office overtime is practised, though not compulsory all the year round. In 13 per cent. it is practised only at certain seasons of the year. In 20 per cent. it was not found at all, and in 20 per cent. overtime was paid at an increased rate. Sunday labour is not required, or rather the principle of Sunday rest is recognised, in 70 per cent. of the establishments examined; about 20 per cent. require work on every second Sunday or for half of Sunday; in 10 per cent. of the cases Sunday labour was prevalent. Greater respect for the weekly rest is shown in the large than in the small establishments. The chemical and building industries, the industries requiring continuous furnaces and transport industries, are those which observe the weekly rest least.

3. Inspectors' reports.

The reports of the inspectors for 1891 show that contraventions of the laws regulating duration of labour are not frequent. "In general the duration of "the day's labour for children of from 12 to 15 years "do not exceed the twelve hours authorised by the law "of 1874.(1) . . . Violations of the law have been "found in certain cotton spinneries in the region of "the Vosges, but more often in the silk-mills of the "Rhône, Loire and Haute-Loire, and in several lace "factories at Saint Chamond.

"The cases where the normal day for children rises "to 12 hours are not numerous." (2)

(i.) Night work.

Night work has been chiefly found in needlework room, where hitherto the inspector has had no power of intervention, and in certain cotton and woollen factories. It is only under the new law of November 2, 1892, that adult women's labour as well as child labour is regulated at night. The inspector for the Vosges districts reported an increase of night labour for women in the cotton mills during several years, but in 1890 the increase was checked, and 1891 showed a decrease of night labour.

(ii.) Sunday and holiday work.

Much difficulty was met with by the inspectors in application of the provisions of the law of 1874 regarding employment of young girls and children on Sundays and holidays. Contraventions were persistent up till 1891 in the glassworks generally. The inspectors for the Seine department carried on a vigorous campaign during 1891 against the practice of the laundresses of making their apprentices carry home linen to clients on Sunday mornings. Eighty-eight prosecutions were followed by the infliction of sentences and consequently the abuse has nearly disappeared.

(iii.) Infringements of factory laws.

The following figures show the industries which have most required the regulation by inspection :—

TABLE XXX.—Showing PROSECUTIONS for INFRINGEMENT of FACTORY LAWS.

Industries	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	Total.
Silk factories - - -	13	33	18	15	17	31	127
Printing works - -	29	28	12	23	11	15	118
Laundries - - -	—	1	3	1	4	90	99
Brick and tile works -	8	14	14	15	11	16	78
Metal works - -	6	16	15	11	17	12	77
Glass works - - -	11	5	11	24	20	3	74
Lace and ribbon factories.	11	10	8	11	7	8	55
Wool spinneries - -	11	11	10	8	12	3	55
Sewing rooms - -	2	11	13	7	12	6	51
Locksmiths - - -	8	9	7	10	3	8	45
Ironmongeries - -	12	4	11	6	5	11	49
Sugar works - - -	10	7	9	4	6	3	39
Butchers - -	14	7	7	8	4	4	34
Dyeing works - -	4	7	2	6	7	7	33
Cotton spinneries -	2	4	4	7	9	4	30

(iv.) Inspection in 1891.

The ground covered by the staff of 93 inspectors for the 21 districts (*circonscriptions*) may be gathered from the following table (3):—

(1) Cf. supra, pp. 53-4.
(2) Rapport sur l'application de la Loi du 19 Mai, 1874, &c., 1892, p. 3.
(3) Report cited, p. 121.

TABLE XXXI.

Showing INSPECTOR'S VISITS in 1891.

Districts.	Number of establishments visited in 1891.	Counter visits.	Total of preceding columns.	Number of Inspectors.	Average number of visits by each Inspector.	Establishments not employing girls or children.	Total of visits producing results.	Average of visits producing results for each Inspector.
1st. Paris	30,730	10,707	41,437	30	1,381	10,565	30,872	1,029
2nd. Versailles	2,879	—	2,379	17	169	188	2,691	158
3rd. Bourges	2,582	93	2,675	13	205	—	2,675	205
4th. Dijon	623	150	773	1	773	140	633	633
5th. Nancy	1,044	19	1,063	1	1,063	—	1,063	1,063
6th. Rheims	2,282	117	2,399	3	799	551	1,848	616
7th. Saint Quentin	1,118	—	1,118	1	1,118	—	1,118	1,118
8th. Lille	2,316	31	2,347	3	782	165	2,182	727
9th. Amiens	2,266	422	2,688	2	1,344	575	2,113	1,156
10th. Rouen	2,711	515	3,226	4	806	—	3,226	806
11th. Caen	992	3	995	1	995	43	952	952
12th. Nantes	883	—	883	1	883	57	826	826
13th. Angers	2,133	6	2,139	1	2,139	14	2,125	2,125
14th. Limoges	1,597	—	1,597	3	532	747	850	283
15th. Bordeaux	2,158	—	2,158	1	2,158	1,094	1,064	1,064
16th. Toulouse	3,557	142	3,699	3	1,233	1,724	1,975	658
17th. Nîmes	1,535	5	1,540	1	1,540	325	1,215	1,215
18th. Marseilles	2,796	322	3,118	2	1,559	60	3,058	1,529
19th. Grenoble	1,120	—	1,120	1	1,120	—	1,120	1,120
20th. Lyons	614	—	614	1	614	—	614	614
21st. Saint Etienne	4,015	109	4,124	3	1,374	—	4,124	1,374
Totals	69,951	12,641	82,592	93	888	16,248	66,344	713

Cost of inspection.

The total sum set aside for departmental inspection in 1891 was 203,150 francs, the amount for the first *circonscription* (Seine) being 152,450 francs. The salary of the divisional inspector for the Seine was 2,000 francs, and for the principal inspector 4,000 francs. The tenth *circonscription*, which covers the Eure, Oise, and Seine Inférieure departments, also has a considerable sum set apart for it, viz., 13,700. The Nord department (eighth *circonscription*) has a sum of 6,000 francs.

Total numbers of accidents.

The total number of accidents inquired into by the inspectors in 1890 was 187, in 1891 they were 244. The largest numbers were for the first *circonscription*, Paris (Seine), and the ninth, Amiens (Pas-de-Calais, and Somme departments). In 1890 these were 32 and 43 respectively, and in 1891 40 and 59 respectively.

(v.) The report of the inspector for the IXth district (Amiens), 1891.

The report for 1891 of the inspector for the IXth district, which includes the Pas-de-Calais and Somme departments, and of which Amiens is the centre, may be taken as typical. Out of a total of 8,148 industrial establishments (4,457 in the Pas-de-Calais), 2,463 were subject to inspection under the laws of 1848 and 1874, while 5,688 were subject to inspection under the law of 1874 alone.

The largest industrial establishments are mainly gathered together in the six chief towns of the district as follows:—

Calais	486	Amiens	202	Boulogne	70
Arras	65	Abbeville	53	Saint-Omer	36

The smaller industries are naturally much more scattered, but nearly half appear in the chief towns. During 1891 the two inspectors for the district were not able to visit more than 27 per cent. of the industrial establishments under their charge, including 14,972 hands under the law of 1874. Their efforts were chiefly directed to the large industries, because here the effect of inspection is most widely spread. In the smaller workshops, the inspector affirmed, work given to young girls and infants is seldom excessive.(1) In the clothing and sack making industries many workrooms escape inspection entirely, owing to the arrangement of giving out materials to be made up. Often the heads of a family will take in more work than they are able to accomplish, and are obliged to engage extra hands. Great abuses in length of hours and unsanitary conditions are then apt to grow up.

Industries where the law of 1874 is chiefly applicable.

It is in the textile industries, the pickling factories, and the steel pen factories that women and young girls are chiefly employed, while boy-labour is chiefly found in the underground mines. Apprentices are rarely found in any number in the small industries, except in needlework and dressmaking establishments. In the larger industries apprentices generally receive a piece or time wage, in the smaller they are not paid, or receive an infinitesimal wage. A good many finer industries are to be found, in which taste, artistic merit, and delicate finish render any considerable use of machinery valueless as an aid. It was recommended by the inspector that the instruction in the primary schools should be made "more practical and more liable to train manual dexterity."

Age of admission.

Employment of children between the age of 10 and 12 has become more and more rare, the manufacturers generally prefer not to have them before 13. Infringements of the regulations for age of admission are rarely encountered. The whole question of primary instruction had entered on a new phase before it was considered necessary to reform the law of 1874 by such a measure as was passed in November 1892. The law of March 28, 1882, on compulsory instruction had practically superseded the provisions on this subject in the law of 1874. The statistics as to the number of children in industrial establishments in France, who were provided with an elementary certificate, show the change In 1876 there were 26 per cent.; in 1884 68 per cent.; in 1891 80·5 per cent.(2)

Night labour.

During 1891 only a few contraventions of the provisions regulating night labour for children and girls were found in the IXth district, Amiens. Generally, where contraventions were found, the inspector discovered that it was sufficient to point them out to the manufacturers. Special visits were made at night during the busy season to the tulle and lace factories; the contraventions were not of great importance. A few manufacturers were prosecuted. A system of shifts had been devised by the manufacturers to meet the press of the busy season, which generally worked satisfactorily, but was apt to produce unlawful use of night labour. Often the young girls employed in cotton or wool spinneries would declare to the inspector "that they were married, "or were mothers, without attempting to produce any "evidence of their statements," and such a spirit, he alleged makes the work of the inspector difficult.(3) Night work was very rarely found in the smaller industries The regulations as to Sunday and holiday labour, however, were frequently broken at busy seasons in the smaller trades.

(1) Rapport sur l'application de la loi du 19 Mai, 1874, Paris, 1892, p. 55.

(2) *Ib.*, p. 5.

(3) *Ib.*, p. 57. Paragraph 2 of article 4 of the law of 1874 applies to girls under age (*filles mineures*) between 16 and 21. In consequence of the term used it is difficult to apply the clause to married women or widows between these years. The report attached to the law indicated the intention of the legislator to leave as much liberty as possible to women with the care of a family. Cf. Bouquet's text-book, 1885, p. 14.

Hygiene and safety.

The regulations as to hygiene and safety, like many other provisions of the law of 1874, have been superseded;(1) most of the inspectors, and particularly the inspector of the IXth district, declared themselves to be hampered by the vagueness of the law.(2) Such infringements as could be brought home to manufacturers in 1891 "were not numerous." Some children were found to be employed in cement and mother-of-pearl button works, where dust was freely flying about. The manufacturers, when their attention was called to the fact, undertook to carry out the necessary measures for prevention of mischief.(3)

The following table gives the round numbers employed in textile and other great industries:—

TABLE XXXII.

NUMBERS employed in TEXTILE, CHEMICAL, and OTHER INDUSTRIES.(4)

1. Silk spinning	42,000
2. Silk weaving	442,170
3. Other spinning and weaving	110,000
4. Woollen spinning and weaving	120,000
5. Flax and hemp spinning and weaving	30,000
6. Jute	35,000
7. Ceramics	30,000
8. Glass works	26,500
9. Chemicals	30,000
10. Sugar works	77,000
11. Paper ,,	35,000
12. Gas ,,	15,000
13. Soap ,,	5,000
14. Candle ,,	4,000

4. Cabinet-makers, Paris.

The cabinet-making trade of the Faubourg Saint-Antoine, Paris, presents some interesting features. This quarter is a workmen's town (*la ville du meuble*), comprising at least 16,000 workers, devoted to this special trade. It encloses three categories of workers, passing certainly into one another, but yet easily distinguishable.(5)

The classes of workshops where the three classes of workers are to be found may be distinguished as:—(1.) Fine art cabinet works, *ateliers de haut-luxe;* (2.) Cabinet works for large general orders to supply furniture for the great middle class demand for *meuble courant;* (3.) Ready-made cabinet works of a lower class, to supply cheap and sometimes pretentious furniture for a still larger but more fluctuating market that that of the second class. This supply is known as the *meuble du trôle*, and involves much of what is called sweating.

"Ateliers de Haut Luxe."

Out of the first class of workshops come the great masterpieces of the trade, fit for exhibitions, palaces and houses of merchant princes; carved *armoires* valued at 70,000 francs, *bureaux* inlaid with bronze at 25,000 francs, and in general all the more expensive and highly finished kinds of furniture. These works employ on their own premises a comparatively small and very select class of workers, who mainly expend their labour after the first work of construction has been carried out in other works. In some cases specialisation is carried in the direction of upholstery, in others of *marqueterie*, inlaid and bronze work. The Commission of 1884 on artistic industries showed that at that time there were about 4,000 workers of the highest class in the trade. The numbers have greatly increased since then. In general an *atelier de haut-luxe* in the cabinet-making trade divides into two parts, the nucleus or *noyau* and the supplementaries. The former includes the highest class of workmen who are always employed, and in the majority of cases are old servants of a firm. In the *maison Lemoine* a worker may be found of 50 years' standing who earns 50 centimes an hour by inlaid bronze work. A great many of the workers come from Alsace and distant parts of France. The ordinary regulation of the day is to begin work at 7 a.m. and leave at 7 p.m.; two rests of nearly two hours in all give time for meals. In winter the day begins at 7.30 a.m. All the year round, Sunday is a day of rest.(6) There are two scales of wages in such a workshop. The first is for work of the highest order, when the workman is paid by the hour from 80 to 85 centimes; the second is for the ordinary everyday work, when the payment is by piece. This is paid at the rate fixed with the workmen's syndical chamber, and generally amounts to 80 centimes an hour or about 10 francs a day. Sometimes disputes arise with the foremen which have to be referred to the *Conseil de Prud'hommes*. Payment of wages takes place every fortnight. There is a curious custom whereby the employer retains a sum of about five francs, and which forms a sort of savings fund for the workmen's rent, which is paid at the quarter. This is the only approach to an "employers' institution" which can be found in this trade. The workmen are independent in bearing and have their syndicates, which are referred to above.(7) The employers also have a syndicate, which enrolls 160 members out of a possible 3,000.

"Meuble courant."

The next or middle class cabinet trade is linked with the consumer through merchants and intermediaries; it works by order for the great warehouses, shops, and stores. The Commission of 1884 reported that there were then 7,000 cabinet workers in this branch of the trade; that would be far too low an estimate for the present time.(8) There are no statistics as to the numbers of employers and merchants. Two traits are most prominent in this trade; (1) the complete power and importance of the merchant; (2) the excessive specialisation or division of labour among workers. The merchant, taking all risks, becomes an almost despotic master of a series of workshops. The system leads very closely to a species of sweating, and the payment of labour is very low. M. de Maroussem mentions one worker in this trade who earned over 1,900 francs in the year, but his expenses in connection with his trade were high. A certain independence may be acquired by a special worker of unusual ability.

"La Trôle."

All the cabinet work or cheap furniture made in advance without any knowledge of the person who will buy it, may be called *Meuble du Trôle*. This is the third and lowest class in the cabinet trade.(9) The number engaged is a large, fluctuating, uncertain quantity. Two leagues have been formed against this form of the trade; one desires its total prohibition, the other desires its reform, and that a special market should be provided for its products. Petitions on the subject have been addressed to the Municipal Council. The trade takes two main forms, one involves carrying the ready-made furniture, or designs from which it is made, from door to door and shop to shop, offering it to the buyer who will give at least cost price; the other, La Trôle properly so called, is an open market held in the Avenue Ledru Rollin, on Saturday afternoon and evening.

"*Trôleurs* are mostly small cabinet-makers who "employ one or two workmen to make up furniture. "They buy their wood on credit, work it up rapidly, "give the made-up article a few finishing touches, and "dispose of it at a very low price. By this means they "cause considerable harm to conscientious workmen "employed in important workshops, a harm all the "greater as their wages are lowered and their general "reputation for artistic skill and honesty is injured by "the clumsiness of their casual competitors."(10) The *trôleurs* form the most separate and distinct class of workmen in the Faubourg Saint-Antoine; they live in common with their workmen and grind them down.

It has been observed that every strike in the cabinet trade has tended to decrease time paid work, and to increase piece work. Thirty years ago wages were always paid by time. Nominally the strikes increased the rate of wages, but it is uncertain whether there has been any real gain for the worker.

"A powerful syndicate of working cabinet-makers has been formed for the purpose of considering these problems. Whatever may be the result, the furniture trade is still one of the most flourishing of all that enrich Paris. In 1873, the export trade amounted to 4,000,000 francs, and it has never ceased increasing since that period."(11)

5. The glass works at Baccarat.

The glass works at Baccarat (Meurthe-et-Moselle), were specially mentioned in the first order of merit (Grand Prix) by the International Jury in 1889. The works are the property of a joint stock company with a capital of six million francs. Between six and seven

(1) *See* supra, page 53.
(2) Report cited, p. 60.
(3) *Ib.*
(4) These figures were supplied by Sir Joseph Crowe.
(5) Ébéniste Parisien de Haut Luxe. M.P. du Maroussem, Paris, 1892.
(6) *Ib.*, pp. 93-4.
(7) See supra, page 10, op. cit. p. 95.
(8) *Ib.*, pp. 55-6.
(9) *Ib.*, pp. 56 and 98. Annuaire de la Bourse du Travail, 1892. F.O. Report. Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. 28.
(10) F.O. Report cit. p. 29.
(11) *Ib.*, p. 30.

million francs worth of glass products are annually turned out. Two thousand workers, of whom 500 are women, are employed in the works. All the workers directly engaged in glass cutting entered the works as apprentices between the ages of 12 and 16 years. As long ago as 1879, the daily wage of a glass worker was four francs, and this involved a rise of 23 per cent. on the wages of the preceding year. Women's wages were two francs, 25 or 42 per cent. higher than the previous year. The work is remunerated by the piece, according to certain rates, which can only be modified after three months' notice. Each group of workers have their own book on which the product of their labour is inscribed every day. A minimum monthly earning (*gage fixe*) is guaranteed to the worker. The excess of earnings above this is known as *gratification*.

Wages.

Hours. There is no night work, and the workshops close on Sunday. Three-fourths of the workers have a 10 hours' day, the other fourth work 10½ hours. On Saturday the women work only eight hours and are free at 4 p.m.

Free lodging. Free lodging with a garden of two to three acres is provided for a considerable number of the glass workers. In this way 224 households, including 897 persons, are lodged. Other workers are in many cases small proprietors of land in the neighbourhood.

Savings bank. A savings bank was founded by the company which possessed a capital of 760,000 francs of the workers' savings in 1888. The rate of savings per worker is estimated at 10 per cent. annually.

Employers' institutions. The company supports institutions for the children of the workers in the form of crèches for those under six years, and schools for those above that age. Technical instruction in drawing, cutting, and engraving is given to apprentices. Apprentices are only admitted after medical examination; those coming from a distance are lodged, fed and clothed at a low rate which enables them to save on their wages from the commencement. It is asserted that the children of the workers make far better apprentices from every point of view than the apprentices coming from a distance.

Provident and pension funds. The company give important contributions to the various provident and pension funds and invest these funds at a rate of 5 per cent. interest. The deductions from the wages of the different classes of workers for the provident fund vary from one to two per cent; the company contributes in the case of the skilled glass cutters twice the amount retained on their wages. The pension fund is supported wholly by the company. Every worker above 50 years may be admitted as a pensioner if he has been in the service for 20 years, and is no longer capable of continuing. The age of admission for a woman under similar conditions is 45 years. In case of accident the pension may be granted after 10 years' service. A man receives 25 francs monthly, a woman 20 francs as pension. Married women are granted 40 francs during confinement, and are not received again at the works until six weeks after the birth of a child.

Medical assistance. A doctor attached to the works receives sick workmen and workwomen in his consulting room daily gratuitously. Formerly visits to patients were made without charge, but in consequence of abuses of this privilege a fee was fixed at half the sum usually charged in the district.

The annual sacrifice of the company on behalf of its workers may be estimated at 5 per cent. of the wages. These wages amount to a total of 2,000,000 francs, while the various institutions cost 100,000 francs. This figure does not include the free lodging granted to certain workers.

Health and morality. The health and morality among the workers are said to be in a satisfactory condition. The average length of life has steadily risen since 1838. "Whilst the "statistics of the town of Baccarat for 1888 showed a "proportion of 2·4 illegitimate births for every 100, "the population of 897 souls at the works did not show "one" in a period of nearly 30 years.(1)

Cordial relations. The attachment of the population to the works is remarkable. There has never been a strike and the stability of the service is very great. "During the "difficult times of 1870–71 the reciprocal attachment "of employers and workers was manifested in many "ways. The relations rest on a basis of great cordiality, "and make of this group round the works a true "industrial family."(2)

6. The Gas Company of Paris and its staff. The Gas Company of Paris has lately made important arrangements in favour of its workers.(3) For a long time the head workers of the staff have had a share of 1 per cent. in the profits and special advantages in the way of support of pension and provident funds. This year (1893) the company has determined to extend these advantages to the day labourers. They are to receive 2 per cent. in profits, based on the number of days of labour and not on amount of wage. Widows and children are to have a share in the pension and provident funds, and the company has even made provision for a reserve fund for such purposes, to come into operation in 1906, the year of expiration of the concession in case the concession may not be renewed. This fund will be annually subsidised by 80,000 francs.

The provident fund provides medical and pharmaceutical aid for sick or injured workers. It is formed by a retention of 1 per cent. on the wages of workers and employés and an equivalent contribution from the company, all expenses of working being at the company's charge. The pension fund has been maintained without any levy upon wages by gifts from various administrators and by contributions from the company. The amount of pensions paid up to December 31st, 1892, was 281,878 francs.

The company gives scholarships in certain technical schools to the children of employés.

DIVISION III.—SPECIAL SUBJECTS.

1.—Co-operation and Profit-sharing.

(a.) Origin and progress of the co-operative movement. In France the co-operative principle has received three applications, which are reviewed in the report to the Senate on Co-operative Societies, 1892. "These three "types are nearly allied, and are often confused. They "are—(1.) Co-operative association for supplies, which "enables the co-operator to supply the needs of his house-"hold under the best conditions at the cheapest rate; "(2.) Co-operative association for credit, which aims at "bringing capital within the reach of those with narrow "means upon the most favourable terms; (3.) Co-operative "association for production which enables the workman "to increase his daily wage by the share of the profits "which usually goes to the employer."(4) Co-operative building societies are as yet in their infancy, but beginnings in this direction have been made, and the subject has attracted a share of the attention of the legislator.(5)

The co-operative movement originated in France immediately after the Revolution of 1848, under the influence of Communistic thinkers and writers. The National Assembly promptly opened a credit of 3,000,000 francs, which was to be lent out to co-operative societies. The decree of July 5, 1848, founded a council which was to supervise the proper distribution of the loan. On the 15th another decree authorised the Minister of Public Works to entrust certain Government contracts to workmen's associations. The committee which drew up a report on the subject held that "in the greater number of cases the "regular contractor could be suppressed, and partial "contracts given to co-operative associations, and thus a "new field would be opened to the labourers."(6) In six months the requests for contracts reached 480, and the demands exceeded 27,000,000 francs. Only 49 of the requests could be partially responded to. Certain associations attained a relative prosperity as long as the Republic lasted, although the movement in no way answered to the expectations based upon it. The advent of the Empire buried the question of co-operation for a time. The decree of March 25, 1852, abolished all workmen's societies, prosecuted and fined certain leaders, and sent others into exile. In 1867, the law of July 24, on Joint Stock Companies (*Sociétés Anonymes* and *Sociétés à capital variable*) gave a fresh chance of life to co-operation, although the movement was still distrusted by the authorities, and the name of this form of society did not appear in the Act. In point of fact, however, it is on this law that modern French co-operation is based.

(i.) The Act of 1867.

From the time of the Exhibition of 1878 the movement began to show strength. MM. de Freycinet and Carnot attempted to revive and improve upon the decree of July 15, 1848, but their proposals were set aside.

(1) Rapport du Jury International. Groupe d'Économie Sociale, Vol. ii., p. 470.

(2) *Ib.*

(3) "La Réforme Sociale," May 1, 1893, p. 720.

(4) Rapport sur les Sociétés Co-operatives. Senate No. 29, 1892, p. 45.

(5) *See* Draft Bill, Part IV., Appendix XII. p., 120.

(6) Report quoted, p. 4.

In 1881, M. Floquet, then prefect of the Seine, revived this decree as regards works in the city of Paris.(1) A committee appointed by him drew up some regulations specially favouring working men's societies, and those contracting firms which admitted their employés to a share in the profits. In 1888 a circular dated June 4, was addressed by the Minister of the Interior to the prefects, stating that societies of working men were in future to enjoy certain advantages over other persons or firms in tenders for State contracts, namely: (1) they were to be free from the obligations of a deposit for works and supplies under 2,000*l.* in value; (2) they were to have the preference at equal tenders over any other contractors; (3) they were to have the privilege of fortnightly payments on account. The French Government conceded these privileges without the sanction of a Statute, and no protest was made in Parliament.(2)

.) The circular of ne 4, 1888.

This circular was probably based on the results of the Extra-Parliamentary Commission appointed March 20th, 1883, by M. Waldeck-Rousseau, Minister of the Interior, for the purpose of inquiry into workmen's associations and profit-sharing. The Commission was divided into two sections, one appointed to study the modifications that could be effected in the law of 1867 on societies, the other to receive delegates of the co-operative societies, and heads of firms which gave a share in the profits to their employés.

i.) Separa- mfrom the cialists.

Before proceeding to analyse the changes proposed in legislation which are the outcome of this inquiry, it seems advisable to present a brief sketch of the actual state of the movement in France under existing laws and alleged obstructions.

Owing its origin mainly to such men as Fourier and Buchez, the co-operative movement is now generally separated from the advanced socialistic and communistic wings of the labour movement, and is strongly repudiated by the extremer spirits at the Labour Exchange. "Workmen "who join profit-sharing establishments, said one of them "in 1890, desert the army of labour, and declare war on "the syndicates.(3) Few socialists will even admit co-operation as a "palliative" of present industrial evils, and in general they look upon it as an outpost of reaction. The most distinguished exponents of the co-operative principle are equally strong in expressing their dissent from the latest teachings of collectivists. "We differ, "says M. Charles Gide, from the collectivist party on two "important points. The first is that we see no necessity "to abolish individual property even in instruments of "production; we desire on the contrary to be able by "association to make the workman the owner of these "instruments. The second point wherein we differ from "collectivism is that we entertain a certain distrust of the "State . . . although we admit its intervention as re-"gards the protection of the individual. We do not believe "much in the efficacy of law for the creation of a new "social order. . . The organisation of society appears "to me under the aspect of a multitude of associations of "every kind and proportion, in all of which the workmen "receive the entire product of their labour, because they "will possess the instruments of production. I believe "in co-operation, but it cannot be built up in a "day."(4)

.) Pro- ctive, ilding d Credit cieties.

Certainly it is true that, while France is the "classic" land of profit-sharing, it has not yet made any great progress in productive co-operation. According to M. Gide's calculations, there are 81 productive societies in all, of which 40 are in Paris.(5) The industries undertaken are varied in character; among them are included the two mining enterprises of Rive de Gier and Monthieux.(6) No general account has yet been officially prepared of the modes of government prevailing or of distribution of profits among members of the productive societies. The following list has been drawn from the Co-operators' Almanack for 1893.(7) The lists of building societies and co-operative loan societies are attached:—

Table XXXIII.

Co-operative Productive Associations in France.

(81 Societies not including Fruitières et Laiteries.)

Société des charpentiers de la Vilette, 49 rue St. Blaise, Paris.

Association l'Ebénisterie parisienne, 17 *bis*, cité Bertrand, Paris.

Association des menuisiers de Paris, 30 rue du Poteau, Paris.

Association de menuisiers (atelier syndical), 34 rue Baron, Paris.

Association de menuisiers l'Espérance du bâtiment, 81 rue des Pyrénées, Paris.

Association de peintres: le Travail, 6 rue de Madrid. Paris.

Association de peintres: le Progrès, 60 rue Caulaincourt, Paris.

Association de peintres: la Fraternelle, 4 rue de Crillon, Paris.

Union des sculpteurs-mouleurs, 60 rue Caulaincourt, Paris.

Union des serruriers, 7 rue Froissart, Paris.

Association des ouvriers tapissiers, 5 rue Meissonier, Paris.

Association l'Eclairage moderne, 99 faubourg du Temple, Paris.

Société de fumistes-briqueteurs, 38 rue Richard-Lenoir, Paris.

Association des tôliers fumistes, 29 rue Geoffrey-St.-Hilaire, Paris.

Société co-opérative des parqueteurs, 10 rue de la Rosière, Paris.

Association des paveurs de Paris, 131 boulevard Bessières, Paris.

Association le Pavage, 77 *ter*, rue de la Tombe-Issoire, Paris.

Association de terrassiers, puisatiers-mineurs, 6 rue Guille-minot, Paris.

Association des ouvriers granitiers, 67 rue Mouton-Duvernet, Paris.

Association piquers de grès, 33 rue du Moulinet, Paris.

Association des casseurs de pierres, 34 avenue de Clichy, Paris.

Association des doreurs sur bois, 36 rue Saint-Vincent, Paris.

Association des ferblantiers réunis, 15 rue des Trois-Bornes, Paris.

Association des ouvriers en voitures, 69 rue Puchet, Paris.

Association de carrosserie et charronnage, 45 rue d'Avron, Paris.

Union des ouvriers bijoutiers en doré, 12 cité Dupetit-Thouars, Paris.

Société des ouvriers en colliers anglais, 95 faubourg Saint-Martin, Paris.

Association des ouvriers horlogers, 43 rue Saintonge, Paris.

Association Imprimerie Nouvelle, 11 rue Cadet, Paris.

Association des facteurs en instruments de musique, 81 rue Saint-Maur, Paris,

Association des ouvriers en limes, 48 rue des Gravilliers, Paris.

Association d'ouvriers lithographes, 27 *bis*, rue Corbeau, Paris.

Association générale d'ouvriers tailleurs, 33 rue Turbigo, Paris.

Association d'ouvriers selliers l'Avenir, 49 rue de Rivoli, Paris.

Société co-opérative des bouchons, au Boulou (Pyrénées-Orientales).

Association des charpentiers de navires, à Boulogne-sur-Mer.

Société de paveurs et cimentiers l'Épargne, 24 rue Degriès, Bordeaux.

Union des maçons, plâtriers et tailleurs de pierres, Narbonne.

Association des ouvriers menuisiers, Poitiers.

Redouly et Cie, ancienne maison Leclaire, 11 rue Saint-Georges.

Association ouvrière de graveurs, 17–19 rue des Grandes, Augustins, Paris.

Société des lunetiers, 6 rue de Poitou, Paris.

Association des ouvriers formiers, 48 rue St.-Sauveur, Paris.

Association des facteurs de pianos, 54 rue des Poissonniers, Paris.

Société coopérative de ouvriers et ouvrières en sacs en papier, 10 rue Thiboumery, Paris.

Association de la chapellerie aixoise, Aix (Bouches-du-Rhône).

Société co-opérative de l'industrie drapière Vienne (Isère).

Société co-opérative de l'industrie cotonnière, Thizy (Rhône).

Société co-opérative de l'industrie cotonnière, Lagresle (Loire).

(1) Report quoted, p. 8.
(2) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 213, pp. 11 and 19.
(3) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No, 258, p. xviii.
(4) Rapport sur les Sociétés Co-operatives, cit. pp. 27-30.
(5) Revue d'Économie Politique, January 1893.
(6) See above, Division II., p. 58.
(7) Almanach de la Co-operation Française, p. 93.

Société co-opérative des ouvriers sabotiers la Conciliation, Limoges.
Société co-opérative des ouvriers brossiers le Creusot.
Association ouvrière l'Imprimerie Nouvelle, Lyon.
Association d'ouvriers cordonniers, Marseille.
Association d'ouvriers tailleurs de limes, Arnay-le-Duc (Côte-d'Or).
Association d'ouvriers maçons, Lyon.
Société civile des ouvriers menuisiers de Lyon, rue Vauban.
Société co-opérative des tailleurs de pierres, à Bourg (Ain).
Dequenne et Cie, ancienne maison Godin, association du Familistère de Guise (Aisne).
Société anonyme et co-opérative de la Laiterie de Leschelle (Aisne).
Association co-opérative d'ouvriers menuisiers, Nice (Alpes-Maritimes).
Imprimerie Niçoise (association co-opérative), Nice.
Société des mineurs des mines de Rancié (Ariège).
Brasserie bourguignonne (association co-opérative), Dijon.
Société fruitière co-opérative (laiterie) à Marignac-Saint-Béate (Haute-Garonne).
Société des paveurs l'Epargne, à Bordeaux (Gironde).
Société de cordonnerie, Tours (Indre-et-Loire).
Société co-opérative d'Abilly, instruments agricoles (Indre-et-Loire).
Société des vanniers, à Villaines (Indre-et-Loire).
Syndicat agricole de Poligny (Jura).
Sociétés fruitières, fromageries diverses.
Verrerie stéphanoise (société co-opérative), 9 rue Tréfilerie, Saint-Étienne (Loire).
Compagnie stéphanoise de la Mine aus mineurs, à Monthieux.
Syndicat des mineurs du bassin houiller du Gier, à Rive-de-Gier.
Société de battage de Saint-Claude, près Blois (Loir-et-Cher).
Syndicat agricole de Maine-et-Loire (battage des récoltes).
Société co-opérative de battage de récoltes, à Montreuil-sur-Brèche (Oise).
Société co-opérative de battage à Haudivillers.
Société des tullistes de Calais.
Syndicat des charpentiers de navires de Boulogne-sur-Mer.
Association co-opérative du journal *le Petit Clermontois*, à Clermont Ferrand.
Laiterie co-opérative à Mauzé-sur-le Mignon (Deux-Sèvres).
Laiterie co-opérative à Usseau (Deux-Sèvres).
Société des cordonniers de Limoges.

Table XXXIV.

Co-operative Building Societies.

(3 Societies.)

Société co-opérative immobilière de Paris, 8 rue du Foin.
La Pierre du foyer, société co-opérative de construction et d'épargne, Marseille.
Société co-opérative de construction (en formation), chez "les fils de Peugeot frères," à Valentigney (Doubs).

Table XXXV.

Co-operative Banks in France.

(18 Societies.)

Crédit mutuel et populaire (le R. P. Ludovic de Besse), Paris.
Banque populaire du V^me^ arrondissement de Paris, 34 boulevard Saint-Germain.
Société agricole, Senlis.
Société lyonnaise de crédit au travail, Lyon.
Banque populaire, Marseille.
Banque populaire, Menton.
Banque populaire, Nice.
Banque populaire, Angers.
Crédit mutuel agricole, Poligny (Jura).
Crédit mutuel et populaire, Bourges.
Banque populaire agricole, Saint-Florent-sur-Cher.
La Prudence (banque ouvrière), Montceau-les-Mines.
Caisse de crédit mutuel du syndicat agricole de l'Auxois (Nièvre).
Caisse de crédit mutuel du syndicat agricole de Senne.
Caisse de crédit mutuel du syndicat agricole de Baigneux.
Caisse de crédit mutuel du syndicat agricole de Segré (Maine-et-Loire).
Caisse de crédit mutuel du syndicat agricole de Saint-Amand-de-Boisse (Charente).
Crédit mutuel du syndicat des Deux-Sèvres.

The number of productive societies and information about them has certainly increased, for only 50 were known to be in existence at the time when the report to the Senate on the law regulating co-operative societies adopted by the Chamber was prepared in 1892. Most of the Paris societies belong to a consultative chamber which meets in the Rue Cadet. Table XXXIII. shows that the undertakings are varied in character. The co-operative credit societies or popular banks are not developed in proportion to the activity of the propaganda in their favour. In this propaganda, M. Vigano, the promoter of Italian banks, seems to have had some share. The congresses of Marseille 1889, Mentone 1890, and Bourges 1891, devoted considerable attention to the subject. The *Crédit Mutuel et Populaire de Paris* was founded by M. le Père Ludovic de Besse, and in the end of 1890 possessed a capital of 100,350 francs, and enrolled 457 shareholders holding 2,007 shares of 50 francs. *La Banque Populaire de Menton* is an "anonymous co-operative society with variable capital," and in December 1890, its profits were estimated at 26,226 f. 81 c. The view of the Commission in the Senate, 1892, was that this form of co-operative providence could not develop until it was first relieved of the expenses of formation and fiscal charges which fall upon financial societies, and secondly, given particular advantages which should encourage the poorest labourers. Building societies can hardly be said as yet to exist in France, the only successful one being *La Pierre du foyer* formed by M. Rostand at Marseille in 1891. Details of its constitution are lacking as in the case of most of the productive associations. M. Gide traces the uncertain development of these branches of co-operation largely to the naturally weak associative capacity of Frenchmen. Organisations which are worked out spontaneously and steadily amongst the Teutonic (Anglo-Saxon and German) peoples have only a fitful history with Latin peoples. French history of this century shows three periods during which the co-operative idea was applied with impetuousity and then almost abandoned through political, religious or simply personal diversions. These periods coincided with the Revolution of 1848, the favour shown by Napoleon III. about 1863, and with the early workmen's congresses at Paris and Lyons between 1876 and 1877. Workmen in France do not care to be governed by their equals. "One is sometimes tempted to ask if the race "has the capacity of adapting itself to any other form of "association than that which calls itself the State:"[1] A remarkable reassurance on this question is given by the success of the co-operative movement in connection with the agricultural syndicates. Their success in performing the work of distributive wholesale societies has already been referred to.[2] In so far as these societies aim at facilitating cultivation of the land by means of common property in instruments, they become productive co-operative societies. M. Arthur Rostand, the promoter of the co-operative branch of the great agricultural syndicate of La Charente Inférieure dreamed of ultimately forming a a single great society, *La Co-opérative de France*, which should have controlled all the undertakings of these syndicates. Whether some such scheme be possible or not, it is certain that successful beginnings of productive co-operation are to be seen in the dairies of Aisne, Deux-Sevres and the Nord departments, in the butcheries at Nîmes and Astaffort (Lot-et-Garonne), and in local threshing groups and associations for provision of agricultural implements or machines, as at Anglure (Marne) and Saint Florentin (Yonne).[3]

Co-operative credit societies.

Building societies.

Uncertain development of productive co-operation.

Success of Agricultural Societies.

It is not to be forgotten in considering this movement that it rests upon a wider basis than any purely labour organisation, since it includes large as well as small proprietors. The difficulties of order and discipline and want of business knowledge have not arisen at the outset as in so many of the workmen's industrial undertakings.

These were the difficulties which, added to those of want of sufficient capital and obstacles in the nature of the undertaking, so nearly wrecked the workers mining companies of Rive-de-Gier and Monthieux. The history of these at-

(v.) Worker Mining Companies.

(1) Le Mouvement Co-opérative en France. Ch. Gide, pp. 12-2; 14-17.
(2) Supra, p. 2-67.
(3) Les Syndicats Agricoles, Comte de Rocquigny, pp. 161-230.

tempts has already been referred to(1); it remains to further draw attention to the organisation of the companies themselves. The Company of Rive-de-Gier is an "anony- "mous civil society with variable capital and members," constituted under the law of July 24, 1867. It may constantly replace deceased or retiring members, and so is unlimited as to duration. It can only be dissolved by a majority of nine-tenths of the shares (*actions*) unless in case of loss of three-quarters of its capital, a case which is provided for by article 37 of the law referred to. When the society was legally constituted each worker pledged himself for the sum of 100 francs. These founders reserved no special rights for themselves, in spite of the severe struggles and privations that they endured at the outset. No privilege of any kind is permitted in respect of the capital of the society; president and miners, administrators and unskilled labourers alike, may possess only one share of 100 francs. Careful regulations, however, are drawn up as to the admission of shareholders. Members of the society who have been guilty of serious offences are dealt with by the general assembly. Until the capital sum of the society amounts to 100,000 francs, a reserve of 80 per cent. on profits will be set aside; after the sum mentioned has been attained, 40 per cent. will be set aside out of the profits. Twenty per cent. is reserved out of profits for the relief fund, to this is added one per cent. on wages. The administrative council is composed of nine members named for three years by the general assembly; it meets once a fortnight. Two members nominated by the council form the directing committee; one of them controls the works, the other is especially concerned with the financial affairs of the society. The control of the workers is of the simplest kind and the "penal code of the company" is very brief. Discussion of politics and religion is especially forbidden in the mines or at meetings.(2) From the point of view of internal peace the affairs of the Monthieux society were less well arranged. It was subsidised by public as well as private funds, and yet had greater difficulties of a financial kind. A certain number of shares not bearing interest were given specially to the miners' syndicate, which first moved in the undertaking. The independence of the society was not so complete as at Rive-de-Gier. The capital subscribed by outsiders was divided into 600 shares of 100 francs each, and three classes of shareholders were admitted, viz.: (1) associated shareholders, working in the mine and holding one share, who have a right to part of the profits; (2) preference shareholders (*détenteurs*) who comprise those workers who began the undertaking; (3) syndicate shareholders. Added to those distinctions is a special privilege for founders (*parts de fondateurs*) giving claim to a special portion of the profits. Every workman entering the mines becomes a shareholder without subscription. Less careful provision is made for a reserve fund; only five per cent. is mentioned for this purpose in the statutes. The arrangements for a council of administration and directing committee are the same as at Rive-de-Gier.

(vi.) The "Familistère de Guise."

Among productive co-operative undertakings it is almost needless to point to one as the most famous, viz., the *Association du Familistère Guise*, formerly the *Maison Godin*, now working under the name of *Dequenne et Compagnie*. The history of the origin of the undertaking is the common property of the economic text-books and can only be briefly referred to. Under the influence of the ruling ideas of the Revolution of 1830 M. Godin devoted a considerable part of a large property acquired in iron works to steadying and improving the condition of the working classes. By degrees he developed his factories at Guise into a vast institution for the benefit of his own employés. In 1870 difficulties arose through the events at Paris, where M. Godin had deposited a large part of his funds, but these were successfully passed. The prosperity of the works made continuous strides until it became necessary in the view of its founder to reconstruct the undertaking and give the workers a legal right to control and continue it in case of his death. The latest accounts record a continued prosperity.(3) Since its reorganisation as an "integral association of capital and labour" in 1880 its success has been unbroken. The death of M. Godin in January 1888 made no break in the affairs of the society. M. Dequenne was elected for life by the General Assembly of the Society as managing director in accordance with the statutes drawn up in 1880. His powers are those of a president of a council of administration and of a director of a joint stock company. He represents the society, and he alone has power to dismiss officials within the limits laid down in the statutes. He can only be called to account at the General Assembly on the motion of the Managing Council. His annual stipend is 15,000 francs, with a share of 4 per cent. in the profits. The *rôle* of the Managing Council is mainly consultative and deliberative, and it meets once a month. This council meets also weekly under the name of Council of Industry to decide questions of industrial order. There are, besides, the Council of the Familistère and the Council of Surveillance. The latter is composed of three associates directly appointed by the assembly to overlook accounts and to prepare the annual returns; this council attends the sittings of the Managing Council, but has no deliberative share in its proceedings. "The Société de Guise has a long future before it, for its deed of association (*commandite*) was drawn up for a period of 99 years."(4) The possibility of revision as well as of dissolution have been provided for; the latter requires the common consent of all the members; the original members may gradually pass away, however, without affecting the deed of association.

Constitution and Government of the Association.

It is the method of dividing the profits which chiefly distinguishes the factory.

Method of sharing profits.

The net profits are not declared until after the following have been deducted from the gross profits of the year. (1) 5 per cent. of the value of the real estate, 10 per cent. of the value of the material, 15 per cent. of the plant; (2) a sum equal to 2 per cent. of the wages for the pension fund and the fund for primary necessaries; (3) the expenses of education and instruction;(5) (4) the interest due to the beneficiaries of funds; (5) a levy of 25 per cent. for a reserve fund.

The profits are then divided in the following proportion: (1) 25 per cent. to intelligence, *i.e.*, to the director, 4 per cent.; to the managing council, 10 per cent.; for each of the members of the council of surveillance, 2 per cent.; to exceptional workers 2 per cent.; in scholarships 10 per cent.; (2) 75 per cent. are then divided between labour and capital, one franc of wages being held equal to one franc of capital. Wages amount to 1,740,430 francs and the interest on them is paid, not in specie (as for capital), but in savings-notes which bear an interest themselves of 5 per cent.

Classes of workers.

The workers are not all on the same footing. The highest class who are elected by general assembly are called associates (*associés*) and receive profits to the amount of twice their wage. The next class are called *sociétaires* and are appointed by the director; they receive in profits one and a half times the amount of their wage. The *participants* are appointed in the same way and receive 1 franc in profits for every franc of wage. The "auxiliaries" only share in the advantages of the provident funds and social advantages of the place without directly receiving any profits.

Numbers.

In 1888 there were 13 *associés*, 67 *sociétaires*, 52 *participants* out of a total of 1,237 employés and workpeople. At the same date there were 230 of the staff who had been in the employment for 5 years, 282 for 5 to 10 years, 152 for 10 to 15 years, 180 for 15 to 20 years, 142 for 20 to 25 years, 88 for 25 to 30 years, 45 for 30 to 35 years, 16 for 35 to 40 years, 2 for 40 to 45 years. These figures show briefly the great stability of the staff.

Work of the factory.

The industrial undertaking of the society comprise manufacture (1) of ovens, ranges, *calorifères*, and stoves; (2) kitchen utensils; (3) articles for lighting and furnishing; (4) miscellaneous hardware.

The mean annual consumption in the processes are: of pig iron 7,500,000 kilos, of steel 100,000 kilos, cast iron 100,000 kilos, coke 2,500,000 kilos, coal 2,200,000 kilos.

The mean annual turnover is 4,000,000 francs for a capital of 4,600,000 francs.

The Familistère.

The Familistère comprises three big buildings, capable of holding 1,800 inhabitants, each family renting from two to three rooms. There are certain inconveniences attached to the limitation in the accommodation at the disposal of each family. The sanitation and hygienic arrangements are declared to be excellent.(6) The common institutions provide for all sorts of recreation and instruction. There is a well managed nursery, where the mothers can leave their children from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. The schools are free, but parents are not obliged to send their children to them. All teachers are certificated (*diplomés*), and must possess a *brevet supérieur*. Boys and girls are taught together. "The "working class families at Guise have obtained valuable "advantages; a sufficient wage, moderate hours of work, "Sunday rest, a savings institution, which, besides an "interest of 5 per cent. gives a right to a dividend.

(1) Supra, p. 58.
(2) Revue d'Economie Politique, July-August, 1893, pp. 635-9.
(3) Ajusteur-Surveillant de L'Usine de Guise. Urbain Géurin. Firmin Didot, Paris, 1892, p. 33.
(4) *Ib.*, p. 49-50.
(5) These may not be less than 10,000 francs for general expenses and 15,000 francs in salaries to teachers according to the statutes. Op. cit., pp. 6 and 46.
(6) Op. cit. p. 37-9 and L'Almanach de la Co-opération Française, 1893, p. 14. 1893.

"They consider that they are working on their own "account; they do not dream of conflict with the "directors of the Association, whose interests they regard "as one with their own. At Guise social peace is always "maintained."(1)

The other great firms in France which passed from profit-sharing into co-operative societies are the Maison Leclaire for house painting, founded in Paris, 1842, the Maison Laroche-Joubert et Cie; paper works at Angouléme, founded 1843; and the Magasins du Bon Marché, (formerly Boucicaut, now Plassard, Morin, Fillod et Cie.) in Paris, founded 1877. These are the famous typical examples of successful profit-sharing and co-operative undertakings.

(vii.) Distributive societies.

As no official statistics of co-operative supply or consumers' societies (distributive stores) have yet been prepared any statements about the numbers of these associations must be taken with reserve. A provisional list has been drawn up for the French Co-operators' Almanack.(2) According to this there are 942 supply associations, in 82 departments, of which a large number are bakeries. These figures include three Unions of Societies, viz.; (1) the Co-operative Union of French Consumers Societies (de Consommation) which has its central committee at Paris; (2) the Federation of the Consumers' Societies of the Paris, Lyons, and Mediterranean railway employés, at Grenoble; (3) the Federative Committee of the Bouches-du-Rhône Societies at Marseilles. Only six departments are without any of these distributive societies, namely Corsica, Côtes-du-Nord, Finistère, Lozère, Orne, Tarn-et-Garonne. The department with the greatest numbers are: Charente Inferieure, 113; Seine, 84; of which 50 are in Paris and 34 in the surrounding districts; Rhône, 84; Saône-et-Loire, 62; Nord, 38; Aisne, 29; Doubs, 29; Loire, 28.

The earliest distributive societies in France were to be found over 50 years ago. In 1850, there were 38 of them, but they dwindled and almost disappeared in the next 10 years. One of the most flourishing of these societies, the Society of the XVIIIth Arrondissement of Paris (Rue Jean Robert, 14) was founded in 1866, the same year as the one called *La Revendication de Puteaux*, which owed its existence to the "inspiration of the citizen Benoit Malon." The majority have sprung into existence rapidly in the last 20 years. In 1888, the total sales of 317 societies was over 13½ million francs, which gave an average of 239,000 francs for each society, and 440 francs for each associate.

It is in the departments rather than in Paris that the distributive societies have been chiefly successful, but there are prominent and successful societies in Paris also.

"La Société du XVIII^e. arrondissement."

The "Society of the XVIIIth Arrondissement" and the *Moissoneuse* may be taken as typical among these.

The former began with 54 members in 1886, and has aimed at being strictly self-contained and providing the daily necessaries of life for its own members only. "Our "society is civil, that is to say our operations are for "ourselves only . . . we do not sell." Important clauses in the rules of the society provide:—

(1.) That every member must continue such for 10 years, except in certain formulated cases of necessity (*force majeure*).

(2.) That the subscription for each member should be 50 francs, of which six are paid on entering, and two francs every succeeding month. This sum does not bear interest.

(3.) That the society pays cash for all its purchases.

(4.) That the risks of the general expenses should be provided against by selling the commodities to members with a fixed additional sum (*plus-value fixe*) added to the price paid in the first instance; the surplus is afterwards divided among the associates in proportion to their purchases.

The total sales for the first half of 1892 were 409,085 francs 80 centimes. A net profit was realised of 9·51 per cent., out of which 45·1 per cent. was distributed in dividends. The society built its own premises at a cost of 340,609 francs 74 centimes. Special subscriptions were required for this; the members subscribed 165,000 francs; the Crédit Foncier lent 80,000 francs, the town lent 47,000 francs.

In June last year a great part of the debt had been paid off, and the Society is still in possession of a considerable reserve.(3)

"La Moissonneuse."

La Moissoneuse was founded by 18 men and women in August 1874. During the first few years the sales were conducted gratuitously, by members in turn, in a very modest store. At the present time the Society has 17 departments, employs 150 workpeople, has 13,574 members, and pays about 7·60 per cent. in dividends to its members. It has an annual turnover of 7,000,000 francs.

Amongst the most prosperous distributive societies in the departments are those of the miners at Anzin, of the employés of the Paris Lyon-Mediterranée Railway Company and the *Abeille Nîmoise*.

Society of the Anzin miners.

The Society of the Anzin Miners was founded in 1865 by the workmen, under the patronage of the Company, but the organisation is entirely independent. It has a central store with 16 departments. The profits represent a saving for each member of 110 francs annually. On March 1, 1889, the members numbered 3,118. They receive about 5 per cent. in dividends, while the annual turnover is about two millions. Grocery, bakeries, and drapery are the staple of the work undertaken.(4)

"La Federation des Employés du P.L.M."

The Federation of the Employés of the Paris Lyon-Mediterranée railway was founded in 1889, at a meeting of 15 co-operative societies at Lyons. Its aim is to centralise the work of the societies, and to arrange for important purchases, doing away with intermediaries as far as possible. Its affairs were administered by a council and a directing committee, chosen among the members of the different constituent societies. The federated societies subscribe 5 francs yearly if they number less than 250 members, and one franc more for every 100 members above 250.

The federation publishes a monthly bulletin, which is of great service in educating and giving trade information to the societies. The following table shows its financial condition—

Number of societies	43
Number of members	13,500
Turnover for 1891	5,560,000 francs.
Savings	562,400 ,,
Social capital, January 1892	731,800 ,,
Reserve capital	116,000 ,,

The federation has given strength to the separate societies of these railway employés, and the bonds uniting them seem to be close.(5)

"L'Abeille Nimoise."

The society called *L'Abeille Nîmoise* received its first contributions at a large meeting held at Nîmes on October 15, 1883, in favour of co-operation, which had for some time shown signs of making way amongst the working population. The rules of this new society were modelled on those of the Rochdale Pioneers and the Paris societies. It commenced operations with 105 members; by 1889, it had 618 members, and a reserve of 30,000 francs, while it had paid dividends of 10 per cent. for five years. "This society has had illustrious foreign visitors, "such as Messrs. Vansittart Neale, Holyoake, Ugo "Rabbeno . . . It has rendered great services in "studying and preparing the organisation of several new "undertakings, such as 'classes for apprentices' and in "drawing citizens of different classes together.(6)" It was in 1886 that the first serious attempts were made to fuse the *Abeille* with an older society of Nîmes called the *Solidarité*. The employés of the Paris-Lyon-Mediterranée turned to the Nîmes co-operators for advice, when they wished to start their own societies; it is estimated that the movement at Nîmes has had considerable influence upon co-operation in France generally. It is this school which corresponds in a measure to the Socialist wing of the English Co-operators, and which is inclined to subordinate associations for production to the consumers associations as representing wider interests. Consumers associations powerfully organised are the indispensable conditions, they hold, of productive associations, for they alone can supply the three elements which have hitherto been lacking, namely, managers, capital, and markets. The more conservative school of Le Play of which M. Fougerousse is a prominent adherent, still believes in the independence of the productive societies, and advises that the profits of the distributive societies should be employed in supporting provident funds and constructing workmen's dwellings.

Absence of wholesale societies.

Although federation of separate societies has made some way in France, the work of establishing wholesale societies has yet to be accomplished.(7) It is the aim of the group of economists, MM. de Boyve, Clavel, and Robert, whose efforts to establish a co-operative congress and federation of co-operators were crowned with success in the establishment of the *Comité Central de l'Union Coopérative* in 1886, to further carry out this development

(1) "Ajusteur-surveillant", &c., cit. p. 51.
(2) Almanach de la Co-operation Francaise, 1893. (First year, p. 107).
(3) Rapport sur les Sociétés Co-opératives, Senate No. 29, 1892. Almanach de la Co-opération Française, 1893, p. 56-7.
(4) Rapports du Jury International. Groupe de l'Economie Sociale, 2nd Part, 1892, p. 461.
(5) Almanach de la Co-opération Française 1893, p. 71-2.
(6) Histoire de la Co-opération à Nimes, De Boyve, 1889, p. 21.
(7) Rapport sur les Sociétés Co-opératives, cit. p. 45-6.

of co-operation which has worked for so long in England and Scotland.(1)

Profit sharing by co-operative employés.

The question of profit-sharing by co-operative employés was raised at the Congress at Marseilles in 1890. inquiries were instituted as to the mode of remuneration generally adopted; to these, 44 co-operative societies, comprising a staff of 301 persons, sent replies. Among them, 29 societies gave their servants an interest in the general returns, and the remaining 15 confined themselves to giving bonuses. "The *Solidarité de Pantin* has adopted a "mixed system; to graduated wages it adds a proportional remuneration calculated both on the number of "customers served and the quantity of goods distributed "during the month by each employé. The *Société Co-opérative Alimentaire de Bethel*, composed of 324 members, has a head employé who receives for himself, his "wife, three daughters and a warehouseman, 2½ per cent. "on the amount of sales, besides being lodged and provided with firing and light."(2)

(*b*.) Profit sharing firms in France.

Profit-sharing is (says M. Charles Robert, who is perhaps the greatest living authority on the subject in France) an agreement, express or tacit, by which the industrial, commercial, or agricultural employer gives to his workmen, in addition to their regular salary, a share in the profits without a share in the losses. It is, according to M. Chaix, the well-known printer in Paris, "a mixed system between "modern capitalist institutions and workmen's associations, ". . . by it the workmen may learn to become independent and to form those associations for which they "are as yet insufficiently prepared. It is a transitory "régime, which, without revolution or spoliation, can "make workmen proprietors of the factories."(3)

The idea is purely French in origin, and the first to put it into practice was M. Leclaire in 1842. The above quoted opinions as to the transitional nature of the idea are fully borne out by the actual history of the four great early attempts at profit-sharing, which all in time adopted a mainly co-operative basis. The example of the Maison Leclaire has been, in France, very much what the equitable pioneers of Rochdale have been in England.(4) Profit-sharing, like co-operation, received a great check during the early time of the Empire; but fresh activity began with the successful attempt of M. Goffinon in 1862, to turn his plumbing works into a profit-sharing undertaking.

By 1872, 68 new applications of the principle had been attempted in France, and the movement spread to other countries. The following table gives the comparative progress in Europe and the United States in certain prominent years(5):—

TABLE XXXVI.

	1886.	1890.	1891.
France	50	81	92
England	8	49	62
Alsace	3	6	6
Germany. Bavaria	4	3	6
Germany. Hesse	1	1	1
Germany. Mecklenburg	1	1	1
Germany. Prussia	8	8	8
Germany. Saxony	2	2	2
Austria and Hungary	2	2	2
Belgium	1	1	5
Denmark, Sweden, and Norway	3	4	4
United States	3	40	35
Holland	2	4	5
Italy	1	4	4
Portugal	—	1	1
Russia	1	1	1
Switzerland	12	14	16
Spain	—	—	1
	102	222	250

(1) Almanach de la Co-opération Française, p. 35.
(2) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. xix. The seventh Congress of Co-operative Societies was opened at Grenobleon October 15th, 1893, under the presidency of M. Paul Doumer, deputy for the Yonne. Mr. Gray, General Secretary of the Co-operative Union of Great Britain, and Mr. MacInnes, Secretary of the Lincoln Society, addressed the Congress on the opening day. On the same day M. Gide pointed out in an address that while co-operators in France were opposed to revolutionary socialism, they were practically working out many of the ideals of collectivism, and at the same time were avoiding class struggles. In the subsequent proceedings consideration of the Bill before Parliament on workmen's associations naturally occupied a considerable share of attention. The question of organisation of the co-operative movement amongst agricultural syndicates was also discussed and a resolution in favour of development of agricultural credit adopted.
It was stated by M. de Boyve that while there were over 1,000 Co-operative societies in France, only one or two hundred have joined the Union. G.D. 1 11/93.
(3) Rapport sur les Sociétés Co-opératives, cit. p. 32.
(4) *Ib.*, p. 58.
(5) *Ib.*, p. 60.

The figures for Italy do not include the 150 co-operative popular banks.

The following table drawn from M. Trombert's useful guide to profit-sharing shows, in one view, the history of the movement and the actual state of the firms in France, from the point of view of method of dividing the profits. (The sign indicates the method.)

TABLE XXXVII.

Date of Commencement of Profit Sharing.	Name of the Firm or Undertaking.	Fixed Quantum.	Joint-Ownership by Shares.	Mode of Application. Paid direct in Specie to the Workmen.	Mode of Application. Paid into Provident Institutions.
An. XI.	Comédie Française, à Paris	+	—	+	+
1811	Imprimerie Nationale, à Paris (fondée en l'an III).	—	—	—	+
1839	Seydoux Sieber et Cie., filature et tissage de laine, au Cateau.	+	—	+	—
1844	Chemin de Fer d'Orleans (Compagnie du)	+	—	—	+
1846	Comptoir de L'Industrie Linière, à Paris	+	—	+	—
1848	Deberny et Cie., fondeurs de caractères à Paris.	+	—	—	+
1848	Dupont (Paul) Imprimeur, à Paris	+	—	—	+
1848	Gaidan, banquier, à Nîmes	+	—	+	—
1850	Assurances Générales (Compagnie d'). à Paris.	+	—	—	+
1853	Le Phénix (Compagnie d'assurances), à Paris.	+	—	+	+
1854	Chagot et Cie., (Mines de Blanzy)	—	—	—	+
1854	L'Union (Compagnie d'assurances contre l'incendie et sur la vie), à Paris.	+	—	+	+
1855	La Nationale (Compagnie d'assurances), à Paris.	+	—	+	+
1858	La France (Compagnie d'assurances), à Paris.	+	—	—	+
1865	Canal de Suez (Compagnie du), à Paris	+	—	+	+
1868	Renard, Villet et Bunand, teinturiers, à Lyon.	—	—	+	—
1870	Société Anonyme de Tissus de Laine Des Vosges, au Thillot et à Trougemont.	+	—	+	+
1871	Abadie et Cie., fabricants de papier, au Theil (Orne).	—	—	+	—
1871	Pernod, distillateur, à Pontarlier, (Doubs)	—	—	—	+
1871	Roland-Gosselin, agent de change, à Paris	—	—	—	+
1871	Vernes et Cie., banquiers, à Paris	—	—	—	+
1872	Aubert, imprimeur, à Versailles	+	—	+	—
1872	Barbas, Tassart et Balas, couverture et plomberie, à Paris (ancienne maison Goffinon).	+	—	+	+
1872	Chaix, imprimeur-éditeur, à Paris	+	—	+	+
1872	Gaget, Pérignon et Cie., plomberie et cuiverie d'art, à Paris.	+	—	+	—
1872	Godchaux et Cie., imprimeurs-éditeurs, à Paris.	+	—	+	+
1872	Hanappier, négociant en vins, à Bordeaux	—	—	—	+
1872	L'Aigle, (Compagnie d'assurances) à Paris	+	—	—	+
1872	Le Soleil (Compagnie d' assurances), à Paris.	+	—	—	+
1872	Société Anonyme Des Matières Colorantes et Produits Chimiques De Saint-Denis.	+	—	—	+
1874	Mame et fils, imprimeurs-éditeurs, à Tours.	+	—	+	+
1874	Masson, éditeur, à Paris	+	—	+	+
1875	Comptoir D'Escompte De Rouen	+	—	+	—
1875	Filature D'Oissel (Seine-Inférieure)	—	—	+	+
1875	L'Urbaine (Compagnie d'assurances), à Paris.	+	—	—	+
1876	L'Abeille (Compagnie d'assurances), à Paris.	—	—	—	+
1877	Besselièvre, fabricant d'indiennes, à Maromme (Seine-Inférieure).	—	—	+	+
1877	Sautter, Lemonnier et Cie., électriciens, à Paris.	—	—	+	+
1879	Buttner-Thierry, imprimeur-lithographe, à Paris.	—	—	+	+
1880	Blanchisserie et Teinturerie De Thaon (Vosges).	+	—	—	+
1880	Caillard frères, constructeurs-mécaniciens au Havre.	—	—	—	+
1880	Domaine De Chateau-Montrose, (Médoc)	+	—	—	+
1880	Société Linière Du Finistère, à Landerneau	+	—	+	+
1881	Caillette, entrepreneur de maçonnerie, à Paris.	+	—	+	—
1881	Lefranc et Cie., fabricants d'encre d' imprimerie, à Paris.	—	—	—	+
1881	Piat, fondeur-mécanicien, à Paris	—	—	+	+
1882	Dognin et Cie., fabricants de tulles et dentelles, à Lyon.	—	—	+	—
1882	Moullet, imprimeur, à Marseille	—	—	+	—
1882	Moutier, entrepreneur de serrurerie, à Saint-Germain-en-Laye.	+	—	+	+
1882	Pommery (veuve) fils et Cie., fabrique de vins de Champagne, à Reims.	—	—	+	+
1883	Compagnie de Fives-Lille (Nord)	+	—	—	+
1883	Gilon, entrepreneur de serrurerie, à Paris	+	—	+	+
1883	Société Anonyme des Usines De Mazières (Cher).	—	—	—	+
1884	Gounouilhou, imprimeur, à Bordeaux	+	—	+	+
1885	Baille-Lemaire, fabricant de jumelles, à Paris.	+	—	+	+
1885	Lecoeur et Cie., entrepreneurs de menuiserie, à Paris.	+	—	+	+
1885	Lombart, fabricant de chocolat, à Paris	—	—	+	+
1885	Mozet et Delalonde, entrepreneurs de maçonnerie, à Paris.	+	—	+	+
1885	Roux et Cie., machines à vapeur Tangye, à Paris.	+	—	+	+
1885	Saunier, entrepreneur de peinture, à Paris	+	—	—	+
1886	Brière et fils, imprimeurs, à Rouen	+	—	+	—
1886	Félix (Maison) couturier, à Paris	—	—	—	—

TABLE XXXVII.—*continued.*

Date of Commencement of Profit-Sharing.	Name of the Firm or Undertaking.	Fixed Quantum.	Joint Ownership by Shares.	Mode of Application.	
				Paid direct in Specie to the Workmen.	Paid into Provident Institutions.
1886	Lariboisière (Comte de) exploitation agricole, à Monthorin (Ille-et-Vilaine).	+	—	+	+
1886	Monduit, entrepreneur de couverture, à Paris.	+	—	+	+
1887	Nayrolles, ateliers de broderies, à Paris	+	+	+	—
1887	Thuillier, frères, entrepreneurs de couverture et de plomberie, à Paris	+	—	+	+
1888	Bonniot-Pouget, fabrique de tiges pour chaussures à Vallon (Ardèche).	—	—	+	—
1889	La Foncière (Compagnie d'assurances) à Paris.	—	—	—	+
1890	Boivin, fabr. de ganses pour passementeries à Paris.	+	—	—	+
1890	Broquart fabricant de miroiterie, à Bordeaux.	+	—	+	+
1890	La Providence (Compagnie d'assurances) à Paris.	+	—	—	+
1890	Mines De Houille D'Aubigny-La-Ronce (Côte d'Or).	+	—	—	—
1890	Sachs, engrais chimiques à Aubervilliers (Seine).	—	—	+	+
1891	Société co-operative De Consommation Des Ouvriers et Employés de MM. Solvay et Cie., à Dombasle (Meurthe-et-Moselle).	+	—	+	—
1892	Bréguet, fabrique d'appareils de Précision, à Paris.	+	—	+	—
1892	Compagnie Nationale De Voitures L'Abeille, à Paris.	+	—	—	—
1892	Deberc, fabrique de bouchons, à Reims	+	+	+	—
1892	Leclerc, fabricant de lits en fer, à Saint-Dizier (Haute-Marne).	+	+	+	+
1892	Muller et Roger, fonderie de bronze et robinetterie, à Paris.	—	—	—	+
1892	Thomas frères, imprimeurs, à Pontarlier	—	—	—	+
	Banque de Dépôts et De Comptes Courants, à Paris.	+	—	+	—
	Banque Parisienne, à Paris	+	—	—	+
	Banque Russe et Française, à Paris	+	—	+	—
	Boulonneries De Bogny-Braux (Ardennes)	—	—	—	—
	Compagnie D'Éclairage par Le Gaz des villes du Mans de Vendôme et de Vannes.	+	—	+	—
	Compagnie Foncière de France, à Paris	+	—	+	+
	Compagnie Française du Télégraphe de Paris à New York, à Paris.	+	—	+	—
	Compagnie Générale Transatlantique, à Paris.	—	—	+	—
	Compagnie Houillère et Métallurgique de Belmez, à Paris.	+	—	+	—
	Cusenier, distillateur, à Paris	—	+	—	—
	Ducher, ancienne Maison Gerbeaud, tailleur d'habits et uniformes, à Paris.	—	—	—	+
	Fauquet (Octave) filateur, aux Câbles (Eure).	—	—	+	+
	Gaudineau à la Flèche	—	—	—	—
	Gillet et Fils, teinturiers en soie, à Lyon	—	—	+	—
	Janvier père et fils, au Mans	—	—	—	—
	Magazins Du Printemps (Jules Jaluzot et Cie.), à Paris.	+	—	—	+
	Peugeot frères, fabricants de quincaillerie, à Valentigney (Doubs).	—	—	—	+
	Piguet et Cie., ateliers de constructions mécaniques, à Lyon.	+	—	+	—
	Rattier, épicier en gros, à Saint-Etienne (Loire).				
	Rivoire et Carret, fabricants de pâtes alimentaires, à Lyon.	—	—	+	—
	Société Anonyme "Le Nickel," à Paris	+	—	+	—
	Société Des Grands Moulins de Corbeil	+	—	+	—
	Société Générale des Téléphones, à Paris	+	—	+	—

(i.) System of MM. Mame et Fils.

The bookbinding, printing, and bookselling establishment of MM. Mame et Fils at Tours, which has admitted its employés to a share in its profits since 1874, is a good example of the system of sharing by a fixed quantity (*Quantum determiné*). In this undertaking the employés in the bookselling department receive 3 francs per 1,000 on the sales, and the workers in the other departments receive 25 francs per 1,000 on the total production of the workshops. A third of the sums thus set aside for the workmen is paid directly to them with the wages, while two-thirds are reserved for the provident funds. In 1888 the sums amounted to 48,500 francs among 322 profit sharers. In addition to the direct share in the profits MM. Mame subscribe freely to schools and other institutions for the working classes. The firm received a *grand prix* at the exhibition of 1889 for its *œuvres patronales*.(1)

(1) Rapport du Jury International, p. 489. Guide Pratique Pour l'Application de la Participation. A Trombert, Paris, 1892, p. 91.

(ii.) The Maison Chaix.

At the same exhibition the *Imprimerie Chaix* obtained a gold medal for similar institutions. The system of profit-sharing in this firm is calculated on the basis of length of service at the rate of 50 francs per year, beginning at a three years' service. Thus, for three years the share is 150 francs; for ten years 500 francs; for twenty years, 1,000 francs. The sums are divided into three parts, of which one-third is paid directly. The other parts are invested in the provident funds; the second is put to the worker's credit to be paid at any date when he leaves the firm, but the third can only produce interest for him at 60 years of age or after 20 years' service.(2)

(iii.) Maison Leclerc.

The Maison Leclerc, for manufacture of iron beds and furniture (profit-sharing founded 1892), divides its profits between capital and labour in the following way. The share of labour is reckoned partly upon rate of wages, partly upon length of service, partly on importance of the function of the labourer; one-half is paid directly, the other half is paid into the national pension fund for workmen. The workers may buy shares in the firm by means of savings at 100 francs a share. There is a workers' consultative committee which discusses the balance sheet.(3)

(*a.*) Legislation affecting co-operative and profit-sharing enterprises.

As stated above, co-operative and profit-sharing enterprises are hitherto governed in France by the law of July 24th, 1867, which only modified the ordinary regulations applying to joint stock companies and did not create any new forms of association. It gave no legal status to co-operative societies, and is said to have greatly retarded the growth of the movement through the burdens prescribed by it. "The law of 1867, in which the insertion " of the words 'co-operative associations' was designedly " omitted, contains a series of provisions which necessi- " tates the deposit of capital and which subordinate all " other operations to this deposit. . . . Moreover the " association with variable capital may not hold more " than 200,000 francs . . . The law of 1867 is equally " unfavourable to societies among working men, whether " they are elementary or powerful. It is not surprising " that workmen have not entered into the path opened up " for them by the law." These and similar views of the matter were laid before the Extra-Parliamentary Commission of 1883 by M. Waldeck-Rousseau in his introductory address.(4) All the precautions, he said, provided by the law were with the view of hindering stock jobbing and speculation. This danger is not to be feared in the case of honest working men, whose societies are founded to improve their economic position and not for the purpose of financial transactions. The difficulties attending profit-sharing enterprises were also pointed out by him. In evidence given before the Commission M. Robert showed that the most serious hindrance to the progress of profit-sharing lay in the control of accounts given by the law to employés in case of disagreement. " Of all the objections to profit- " sharing this is the only serious or grave one. It is only " because employers are permitted to make an express " convention to the contrary preventing all indiscreet " intermeddling on the part of employés in the accounts, " that profit-sharing has not been in great peril."(5) The domains of administration and of control, M. Robert says elsewhere, cannot be kept too distinct. Shareholders themselves should not directly inquire into accounts, but should only do it by means of representatives. The view of the Parliamentary Committee of 1892 was that new legislation should give the greatest encouragement to a mixed form of profit-sharing, that is to say, the form under which part of the profits declared are retained for benefit funds. The finding of the earlier Commission of M. Waldeck-Rousseau was in accordance with the views expressed by its president, and the recommendations have been mainly repeated by the Committee of 1892. The changes proposed may be most easily grasped by a synoptic view of past and proposed control under the chief heads affecting industrial associations. The following table has been prepared from one presented by the Committee referred to and presents a parallel view of English law on the subject.(6)

(2) Guide Pratique, &c., cit., p. 114.
(3) *Ib.*, p. 329.
(4) Enquête de la Commission Extra-Parliamentaire 1re Partie, Imprimerie Nationale, p. 31.
(5) *Ib.*, Vol. iii., p. 23, also Report to the Senate, 1892, No. 29, p. 103.
(6) *See* Annexe 15 of the Report to the Senate, No. 29 of 1892. For the text of the law, *see* Appendix XII., p. 121.

TABLE XXXVIII.—SHOWING LEGISLATION relating to CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

—	*French law* of July 24th, 1867.	*English law*, 1876. (39 & 40 Vict. ch. 45.).	*Proposed French law.*
Character of the societies	Variable capital and membership.	Two types: "Societies of persons and societies of capitals," (industrial and provident societies).	Variability of persons and of capital.
Constitutive deed	Private or notarial agreement ordered.	Private deed. Notification to the Registrar.	Private deed. Deed executed before a notary purely voluntary.
Number of members (minimum).	7	17	
Initial share capital	200,000 francs	Unlimited	Unlimited.
Minimum subscription	One-tenth (of the nominal share).	Arranged by agreement of the society.	One-tenth.
Amount of the shares	Minimum 50 francs	Optional	Minimum 20 francs.
Form of the shares	Nominal	Nominal until all paid up	Nominal.
Maximum capital per member.	-	200*l.*	5,000 francs.
Choice of director and administrators.	To be chosen among the members.	Arranged by agreement of the society.	Associates, proxy, associated director.
Liability of the governing body.	Under common law	-	Liability for execution of their mandate.
Liability of associates to outside persons.	Under common law	Limited or unlimited	Limited by amount of subscription.
Representation at law	Through the administrators	-	Through director or a delegate of the council unless the statutes provide otherwise.
Inventories or returns	Number not fixed	Annual returns by an expert	At least one annual inventory.
Admission, exit, exclusion	Optional exit at any time unless otherwise agreed.	Arranged by agreement of the society.	To be arranged by the statutes.
Liability after exit	For five years	For one year	Common law.
Maximum decrease of share capital.	Not less than one-tenth	No provision	One-half of share capital unless otherwise agreed.
Mode of voting in general assembly.	Left to arrangement by statutes.	-	One vote per associate, one vote by proxy for absent members.
Reserve fund	One-twentieth at least until it reaches one-tenth of share capital, and then it is optional.	No provision	One-tenth. Optional after reaching one-fifth of share capital.
Control (audit)	Surveillance Commissioners	Public auditors	Commissioners, associates or otherwise.
Fiscal exemptions	-	Exemption from income tax and stamp duties on receipts, bills of exchange and cheques; rights of registration for friendly societies.	Exemption from stamps, and free registration. Exemption from revenue tax, from wholesale and retail licences; reduction in the costs of conveyancing.

2.—WORKMEN'S SUPERANNUATION OR PENSION FUND (*Caisses de Retraites*).

(1.) Commission of Inquiry on *Caisses de Retraites.*

A report on this subject was presented to the Chamber of Deputies in February 1893 by M. Paul Guieysse, in the name of the Commission appointed to inquire into it with a view to the formation of a National Workmen's Provident Fund.(1) The general view of this Commission was that, while it was impossible to praise too highly individual funds already instituted, whether by the workmen themselves through their syndicates, or by the employers, and while so far as they reached, their excellence was manifest, yet they are so inadequate that far-reaching legislative schemes are necessary. "For a working population of "about 12,000,000 labourers the Mutual Aid Societies "reach only one-tenth, *i.e.*, in 1890, 1,232,067 members, of "whom a considerable number do not enter into the "category of bonâ fide working men. This is to show at "once the insufficiency of these societies, for the develop- "ment of which, nevertheless, too much cannot be done."(2)

Employers' institutions.

As for the efforts of the employers, "without speaking of "the superannuation, aid, and other funds of the great "industrial undertakings, such as the railway companies "and the mines, there exist a large number of workshops "and other undertakings where funds . . . particu- "larly appropriate to the district or peculiar conditions of "the industry are to be found. It would be extremely "regrettable that these which multiply daily should dis- "appear or be absorbed in a general scheme, the more so "because the contributions of the employers (*patrons*) are "much higher than those provided for in the proposed "law (*projet de loi*)."(3)

It is by the development of all private enterprise as well as by the formation of national schemes, the Commission held, that the best results will be obtained

(1) No. 2576, Chambre des Deputés, Paris, Imprimerie Motteroz, 1893.

(2) *Ib.*, p. 3.
(3) *Ib.*, p. 37.

Besides all direct advantages to the workers and the industrial forces of the country, the Commission held that the State by taking this matter up would most effectually furnish a check to that diminution of the population "which constitutes a veritable national danger."(1) A rapid solution, they pointed out, was especially called for in France, the country where social questions "had been "earliest raised and which was yet most backward in "presenting prompt practical solutions applicable to a "painful situation full of danger to society." While acknowledging that in this particular case something had been achieved, the Commission pointed out that the laws were absolutely inadequate since they represented no carefully defined principle. It was laid down that whilst it was a duty for every member of the social body to contribute according to his faculties to the development of society, it was for society to put each member in a condition to live freely and according to nature; "that is to say, to "found a family which he may support in comfort by his "labour."

The limited budget of public assistance is insufficient to meet the needs of those poorer labourers who undeservedly fall victims to illness or accidents or reach old age without securing a competence. To the question whether the labourer should not have a share in the profits of industrial undertakings otherwise than in the precarious form of wages, the all-sufficient reply, according to the Commission, was to be found in a study of the institutions founded on behalf of the labourers by all employers who are "anxious "in a just measure about the lot of their workpeople. "What some of them have accomplished society has the "right and the duty to impose on all the others."(2)

(ii.) Justification of State interference.

The principle to regulate interference by the State is that it should be resorted to where the individual members of society are powerless by themselves to attain a given necessary end. "Of late years in the mutual aid societies the "mean pensions did not rise above 73 francs, and only ap- "plied on December 31st to 27,787 annuitants or 2 per cent. "of their members. In the course of 1890 only 3,745 new "pensions were given, of which 472 were from 100 to 200 "francs and only 60 above 200 francs. As for the "National Pension Fund, in spite of the advantages "it offers . . . it only numbers 800,000 depositors, "of which the greater number come through the great "industrial societies or private administrations, such "as the railway companies, *Le Creuzot*, &c."(3) The charge is too heavy for the poorer workmen. It is the duty of the State to complete the work of the employers in favour of the working classes "the more so as so many of "them do not depend on employers properly so-called."(4) This seemed to the Commission specially justifiable in view of the unequal distribution of public charges (*impôts*) which even directly, and much more indirectly, press most heavily on the citizens of most modest income. It would only be a "restitution" made by society if those working class citizens who wish to practise providence were given by the State "a share in the social profits" of their labour.(5)

(iii.) The mutual aid societies.

Hitherto the various kinds of provident funds in France, "which do not develop as rapidly as might be desired," have chiefly aimed at rendering aid in cases of illness and generally also give it on the death of the member to his family; some give annuities to their members above a certain age, but only a small number have so far attempted to fix the amount of such pensions on a scale justified by their resources. "The number of those societies whose "situation is financially sound in view of their engagements "is unfortunately too limited. They operate perfectly, as far "as aid in case of illness is concerned, and also give useful "aid in the form of annuities, but very few give pensions, "which are supported by bases in proper proportion to "their resources or the subscriptions of their members."(6)

The working of these societies is regulated by a decree (*décret-loi*) of March 26th, 1852, but a new law proposed by the Senate is now before the Chamber of Deputies, which "profoundly modifies it in a most liberal sense,"(7) and which would fix the normal relations which ought to exist between the resources and the engagements of the societies.(8)

At present the State subsidises those Mutual Aid Societies which possess superannuation funds.

(iv.) The employers' funds for workmen.

The employers' institutions as has already been seen, are remarkable. But several Bills are before one or other of the Houses affecting them. The superannuation funds of the railway companies are actually under the control of the Minister of Public Works. It was proposed in a Bill under discussion by the Senate at the date of the Commission Report that the mining employers should be bound to contribute either to a national superannuation fund or to syndical funds "a sum equal to three "per cent. of the wages of workers and foremen of which "half should be subtracted from the wages and half pro- "vided by the employer over and above the wages."(8)

(v.) National insurance funds.

Three national insurance funds have for long existed in France in connection with the Deposits and Consignments Fund (*Caisse des Depôts et Consignations*). These are:—

(*a.*) The superannuation fund created by the law of June 18th 1850, reorganised on more rational bases by the law of July 20th 1886, and decree of December 28th 1888 This is purely voluntary and the old age pensions may begin according to the choice and contributions of a depositor either at 50 or 65 years of age. The ordinary maximum for one year dispensed to an annuitant is 1,000 francs. Under certain exceptional cases this maximum may reach by a judicial decision the amount of 1,200 francs.(9) In certain cases of misfortune, under the decree of July 27th, 1861, an extra allowance (*pension bonifiée*) may be provided through the budget of the Minister of the Interior. This allowance (*bonification*) may not exceed 360 francs and cannot be accorded to foreigners fulfilling the ordinary conditions, while the other benefits of the fund may be extended to them.(10) According to the report of the Commission it is this fund whose organisation and rates must serve as primary basis of any projected National Provident Fund since it possesses its proper tables of mortality. "The fund specially devoted to superannua- "tion through accident, and those parts of the provident "fund, generally, which depend upon a group of new ele- "ments should be provided as soon as possible with their "special tables of mortality for the establishment of "appropriate rates."(11)

(*b.*) The Life Insurance Fund, instituted by the law of July 11th, 1868. This provides for individual or collective insurance. The latter means that the approved Mutual Aid Societies may make annual collective insurances on behalf of their members. In the case of insurance by an individual "the sum assured may not exceed 3,000 francs "a head." In the case of assurance by societies the sums may not exceed 1,000 francs.

This fund "has only given mediocre results both in "respect of the number of contracts effected and in respect "of pecuniary results. It will have to be profoundly "modified or may even disappear" in the new scheme. A great development of life insurance is looked for under the Workmen's National Provident Fund.(12)

(*c.*) The insurance fund in case of accident instituted by the law of July, 11th, 1886. This provides for (1) complete disability for life; (2) partial disability for life. "It has "given rise to a very limited number of insurances, and "may be expected to disappear when the New National "Fund for accidents is established."(13)

(vi.) Alternatives before the Commission.

In reviewing the whole matter the Commission had before it ten drafts of laws relating to the organisation of a special superannuation fund which might be reduced to six distinct projects "all of which rested on the one hand on "the conditions of capitalisation and mortality, and on the "other hand on the optional or obligatory contributions of "the depositors increased by subsidies from other sources, "chiefly from the State and the employers."(14)

The Commissioners took as the chief subject of inquiry the draft bill (*projet de loi*) presented by MM. Constans and Rouvier in the name of the President of the Republic. This scheme, besides being the most complete, had the merit of maintaining the dominant character of uniting in one common provident effort the workman, the employer and the State, although it raised even on a first reading the gravest financial questions.(15)

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(1) *Ib.*, p. 41. (2) *Ib.*, p. 4. (3) *Ib.*, p. 5. (4) *Ib.*, p. 5. (5) *Ib.*, p. 6. (6) *Ib.*, p. 20. (7) *Ib.*, p. 55.

(8) In 1890 there were 7,674 mutual aid societies approved by the authorities or recognized as a public benefit (*d'utilité publique*); these enrolled 1,091,152 members. At present prefectoral authorisation is necessary for the formation of these societies, and their development is said to be hampered by their inability to own real property. *See* la Réforme Sociale, October 16, 1893, pp. 619-622.

(9) *Ib.*, p. 56.
(9) *Ib.*, p. 219.
(10) *Ib.*, p. 220-221.
(11) *Ib.*, p. 57. For a report of the work and position of this fund during 1892, see the "Journal Officiel" June 25, 1893, p. 3117.
(12) *Ib.*, pp. 234-5.
(13) *Ib.*, pp. 237-8, cf. infra pp. 82-4, and 126.
(14) *Ib.*, p. 17.
(15) For a translation of this projected law, as well as of a socialistic scheme of MM. Chassaing and others, and of the scheme offered by the Commission, *see* Appendix pp. 122-6. The following brief account of MM. Constans and Rouvier's scheme may be found useful.

The scheme of MM. Constans and Rouvier for securing annuities for old and infirm workmen, proposes to make insurance compulsory for all workmen whose incomes do not exceed 120*l.* a year, unless at the age of twenty-five they make a declaration before the "maire" that they will renounce the benefits of such insurance. The insurance may be effected by paying premiums at the rate of from five to 10 centimes a day into any mutual benefit, provident, or pension fund approved by the State. The employer deducts these premiums from the wages of his employés, adds an equal sum, and pays them into the desired fund.

Some of the remaining schemes were covered by the Government scheme, others suggested points reproduced in the scheme drawn up by the Commission, others again were open to serious criticism on account of errors or oversights or failure to recognise need for stimulus to thrift on the part of the workmen benefited.(1)

Three methods of instituting life annuities.

There are three methods of instituting life annuities by a society: (1) by raising in anticipation from the beneficiaries as a whole (*prélevant sur la masse*) and settling on each individual annuitant at the moment when he makes his claim, a capital sum which, when augmented by the interest accruing to it, assures payment of the sums due until the final payment has been made; (2) by forming the above capital sum by means of annual individual contributions, which are capitalised, taking account of favourable chances of mortality; (3) by simply employing the revenues of the fund to effect the payment of arrears when the annuity falls due.

It is this last method which is used by the State in pensioning its own officials, "the most costly method à "*priori* and the least just, because it throws on to future "years the charges of the past, without even keeping for "special application the inadequate reserves levied as so "much per cent. upon the salaries."(2) The greater number of the mutual aid societies employ too often some such method as the first.

"The second method is the only rational one, but "requires from the very beginning absolute precision and "certainty in the investment of capital in order that a "determinate result may be obtained." If these conditions are fulfilled, it absolutely secures the payment of their claims to the depositors, who are the real collective possessors of all the moneys in the fund, without making the payment of arrears each year, a matter of discussion in the budget. This is the method actually applied by the existing National Pension or Superannuation Fund.

The Commission strongly deprecated absorption of this fund in new funds to be created, on the grounds that it would be to the great detriment of actual annuitants. "It is necessary to devise conditions for organisation of "general funds for pensions, insurance, providence, what-"ever may be the name given, and to seek to attract the "greater part of the enormous capital, which the creation "of such funds sets in movement. In place of dead "capital throwing its official weight on the financial "market, there should be a capital lending vitality to the "great industrial undertakings, compelled to circulate "continually while creating works useful to the country, "and diffusing work throughout the entire mass of "citizens." The Commission approved adoption of the principle of the scheme of M. Jules Siegfried(3), *i.e.*, formation of a bureau for departmental and communal loans to take the place of the *Crédit Foncier*,(4) to various institutions, from which such loans have hitherto been made. "It would be easy to make these loans at 3½ per "cent. and the Bill (of M. Siegfried) proposes to utilise "the capital of the deposits and consignments fund; in "reality what is asked for is simply the expropriation of "the *Crédit Foncier*. The New Pension Fund lends "itself to this operation; but its rôle should not be "limited to this." It might undertake other great public works, such as those guaranteed by the loans of the Shipping Chambers of Commerce for the creation of popular credit and agricultural credit. District funds might be established, "administered by delegates of those "interested, employers and workmen and representatives "of the authorities." These local administrative bodies would have the duty of discovering all undertakings in their district which offered safe security for investments; they would then propose them to a Central Council in Paris, and if the securities were approved would "be "charged with the management and supervision of the "operations."

(vii.) Modifications necessary.

Local administrative bodies and their functions.

It will be seen that the Commission has embodied this principle of district funds in its Bill immediately after the first articles which deal with the co-operation of the worker, the employer, and the State. The Bill is called one for formation of a "National Workmen's Provident Fund."(5) The Commission preferred to use a term which included not only the one form of providence, namely annuity (*rente viagère*), but also all the other wider forms, such as insurance against illness, and life insurance.

The scheme of the Commission differs from the Government scheme on the three important points of—(1) admission of annuitants; (2) employers' contributions; (3) State subsidies. The Government scheme only admits and enforces insurance of those whose annual resources are below 3,000 francs. The Commission considered that admission should be absolutely free and that the advantages offered would be sufficiently large to attract spontaneous insurance.

The Commission also sought to equalise the burdens on different employers, and to remove the temptation, which they held would exist under the Governmental scheme, to less scrupulous employers who might seek to deter their workpeople from inscribing their names on the Fund, in order that they might themselves escape the corresponding charges. It would divide equally amongst all employers the amount of the contribution from employers (*les charges de la contribution patronale*) on "the principle that "every person who presumably profits by the labour of "others owes to society under the form of a contribution, "a part of the advantages he has drawn."(6)

In the matter of the State subsidy the proposal of the Government was that this should amount to two-thirds of the united deposits of the employers and workmen; the Commission adopted the principle of contribution from employers and the State correlative to the entirely optional deposits of the workmen. "It placed no limits or restric-"tive condition on the resources or revenues, or on the "circumstances of subscription to and liquidation of the "Pension. It left almost entirely open the age of com-"mencing membership and of receiving the pension; and "it admitted no clause for forfeiture."(6).

3.—Employers' Liability and Compulsory Insurance.

Movement in favour of an employers' liability law.

The question of employers' liability has been long before the public in France. As early as 1884 a Commission was appointed to report upon a series of Bills which had been presented from 1880 onwards to one or other of the Chambers.(7) In 1888 the Chamber of Deputies passed a *projet de loi* of MM. Carnot and Pierre Legrand, and in 1890, another Government Bill was adopted by the Senate. Another Commission was appointed to inquire into these, and a fresh series of Bills and its report was presented in February 1892.(8)

This report is a valuable document, which contains an account of—(1) foreign legislation on the subject; (2) the French Bills; (3) a fresh scheme which has been recently debated and voted on in the Chamber of Deputies (May 18th, June 3rd, 5th, 6th, 10th); and (4) full explanatory memoranda; (5) Appendices giving text of measures and allied information.

In view of the recent strong vote of the Chamber (510 votes against 6) in favour of the adoption of the scheme of the Commission, it is unnecessary to consider any details of earlier Bills, and it will be sufficient to sketch the purport of this scheme.

Actual state of the law.

It is, however, convenient to refer first to the actual state of the law in France, as regards employers' liability for accidents sustained by workmen in course of employment. Hitherto there has been no special regulation distinct from the general law voted in 1804. By the terms of Articles 1,382 and following of the Civil Code, there is no distinction of persons who are subject to accidents. Damages can be obtained if the injured person can bring legal proof (*apporter judiciarement la preuve*) that injury

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When the pension is completed the State adds a sum equal to two-thirds of the pension acquired. Interest on deposits is calculated at the rate of 3½ per cent., and the total amount of the pension to which the employé becomes entitled at the age of fifty-five, or after thirty years' payment for 200 days in each year, is from 12*l.* to 24*l.* a year.

If before that time the workman becomes permanently incapacitated, he receives back the premiums deposited in his name, together with interest upon them at the rate of 100 per cent., if they have been paid into a mutual benefit fund, 50 per cent. in other cases. If the workman dies before his pension matures, his family receive nothing; but for a small extra payment he may insure his life for from 20*l.* to 40*l.*

If the scheme were carried out in France the State would have to furnish 451,600*l.* in the first year, 626,800*l.* in the second, and in the seventy-fourth year a fixed sum of 3,506,370*l.* 5*s.* 10*d.*

(1) *Ib.*, pp. 8 to 16 and annexés quoted thereon.

(2) *Ib.*, p. 20.

(3) Proposition de loi portant création d'une caisse des emprunts departementaux et Communaux.

(4) In France the term *Crédit Foncier* has two meanings; one applies to immovable property, as a security, the other to a special financial institution which, in other countries as well as in France, effects under certain determined conditions the great majority of loans on real property. Its aim is "to convert mortgages and other liabilities "on real properties by giving them (for the benefit of the proprietor "and the convenience and security of capitalists) the advantages of "uniformity, regularity in the payment of arrears, and easy realisation "as to title, already enjoyed by the public debt." (Dalloz, quoted in the Nouveau Dictionnaire D'Economie Politique). It is the institution that is here referred to. It was on December 10, 1852, that a decree was issued by the Government with a view to centralising all institutions hitherto established for a similar purpose. This transformed the *Banque Foncière* de Paris into the *Crédit Foncier* and extended its working to all departments; the guaranteed capital was fixed at 60 millions and power was given to lend 200 millions on mortgages. (*See* Say's Dictionary, cit. p. 629.)

(5) *See* Appendix XIII., p. 121.

(6) *Ib.*, p. 27. The law was voted in the Senate in March 1893.

(7) Those anxious to study the question historically will find this report useful. No. 2,634 Chambre des Députés. Quantin, Paris, 1884.

(8) No. 1,926 Chambres des Députés. Motteroz, Paris, 1892.

is imputable to the defendant personally, or to those for whom he is responsible, or to things which he has under his care. For illustration of the application of this principle reference must be made to important cases decided by various courts.(1) "The decisions of our tribunals, our "Courts of Appeal, the Court of Cassation, the State Coun- "cil, are the starting point in this critical examination. "They show undeniably a logical and uniform character; "one may say that practically they have arrived at con- "struction of a complete general system of liability. . . . "The obligation that the contract of service puts upon the "employer, in my view is that of taking all appropriate "steps to safeguard the health and life of the workpeople. ". . 'It is a principle' says the court at Besançon, accord- "ing to common law, 'that the company(2) in employing its "'agents in operations which are often difficult and peril- "'ous, should assure their safety, that it should even, if "'occasion offer, seek to protect its employés against their "'own unskilfulness or personal omissions.' And the "court at Dijon: 'the employer has a strict obligation to "'protect the workmen against the dangers consequent "'on the work, and this obligation entails the necessity "'to foresee even possible accidents, and take measures "'which are of a nature to obviate them.' And the "Court of Cassation in dismissing an appeal, declared, "that the employer was bound 'to defend his workmen "'from the consequences of dangers inherent in their "'work.'" These decisions apparently exclude any doctrine like "contributory negligence."(3)

Decisions of the higher courts.

(iii.) View of the Commission of 1892.

Nevertheless the Commission held that the principles of the Common Law were insufficient in view of the relations existing between the head of an industrial establishment and his workpeople, the latter being wholly under orders. Injured workmen can only obtain damages, they declared, if they can prove that the accident occurred through the fault, imprudence, or negligence of the employer or his officials. They accepted as proved the statement, that for every hundred accidents, seventy-five were through unforeseen chance or caused by *force majeure* in which cases the workmen could obtain no compensation, and that out of the remaining 25 cases only a small proportion obtained satisfaction. The delays and uncertainties and expenses of legal procedure were also pointed out.

The scheme of the Commission has a fourfold aim:—It determines at the outset which are the accidents giving rise to indemnities, and fixes their ratio to the wage paid (Parts I. to III.). It traces the regulations of competency whether of justices of the peace or of the special court of arbitration contemplated (Parts IV. to V.). It organises the modes of compulsory insurance of the employers (Parts VI. and VIII.). It regulates the payment of pensions and indemnities due to victims or their representatives (Parts VII. to IX.).

Scope of the measure.

Article I. defines the scope of application of the provisions of the Bill. It is intended that it should apply to workmen and persons employed in (*a*) mining, quarrying, engineering and allied industries; (*b*) transport in all its branches; (*c.*) workshops and factories of all kinds, building trades and generally all establishments or branches thereof, where explosives are manufactured, or use is made of steam engines or machines worked by elementary power (air, water, steam, gas, electricity, &c.) or by animals. Enterprises of the State, departments, communes, and all public establishments are expressly included.

A detailed list of these various industries will be prepared by a Government department (*the Conseil Supérieur des Accidents de Travail*). It will be noted that this list does not contain "sailors" or "fishermen," who, it is intended, shall be the subject of special legislation.

Employers' liability for all accidents.

In these trades, then, which, speaking roughly, are the dangerous trades, the principle of the employer's liability for all accidents (*risque professionel*) is to be recognised and enforced. The workman, or his representatives, is to be entitled to compensation according to a statutory tariff for injury from accident of any kind, except accident intentionally produced by himself. Nevertheless, in case it is proved on behalf of the employer that the accident was due to the gross fault (misfeasance, *faute lourde*) of the workman, the compensation may be reduced, or even altogether forfeited, and vice versâ if the workman proves that the accident was due to the gross fault of the employer or one of his foremen (*préposés*), the compensation may be increased up to complete indemnity.

No contracting out is to be allowed.

All actions are to be brought within a year from date of accident.

(1) The whole subject was exhaustively inquired into by Mr. Sauzet in the Revue Critique de Législation, 1883, pp. 596-640 & 677-704.
(2) A railway company.
(3) Revue Crit. de Légis. cit. pp. 615-6.

(iv.) General scheme of insurance.

In order to secure the payment of the compensation, the system is introduced of Compulsory Insurance (*Assurance Obligatoire*). The State is made directly responsible, but is to be recouped by employers in local groups.

For this purpose the whole of France is divided into districts (*circonscriptions*). Each district is to consist of one or more departments, except that the department of the Seine may be subdivided into several districts. In each district all employers in all the occupations subject to the Bill are made collectively responsible (as herein-after mentioned) for the statutory compensation to all workmen of the district who are injured by accident, power, however, being reserved to single employers or to syndicates of employers to exclude themselves from the general arrangement, and, instead, to insure the same statutory compensation for their own workmen, such insurance to be in conformity with certain prescribed regulations as to caution money, &c.

The district does not insure beforehand against the risk of accidents; but the total amount of compensation awarded and paid by the State in the course of any year to workmen in the district (including cases where, as usual, the compensation is in the form of an annuity, the capital sum representing such annuity) is recovered in the next year from the employers of the district and repaid to the State, the relative contribution of each member being determined by the product of the total of the salaries paid by him during the past year a certain "co-efficient of risk," which, as presently to be explained, has been officially assigned to his establishment, as representing its degree of dangerousness.(4)

Such is the general scheme. In greater detail it is as follows:—

Higher council on accidents in industry.

The Higher Council on Accidents in Industry (*Conseil Supèrieur des Accidents de Travail*) besides framing a list of the industries, assigns to each of these industries a co-efficient of risk;, such co-efficient is in three degrees, from which, by a subsequent process presently described, one will be selected and assigned to each individual establishment belonging to that particular industry. The list will be revised every three years, but in the meantime additions may be made to it when necessary.

General and sectional committees.

Each district is administered by a Governing Committee (*Comité Directeur*) and is divided into sections, each of which has a Sectional Committee also. The Sectional Committee is elected by and from employers of the section. The Governing Committee is to be elected by the Committee of Sections. Each committee is to last for four years, and to be paid. The function of the Sectional Committee is chiefly to advise the Governing Committee, more particularly as to the co-efficient to be assigned to each separate establishment, and as to the reduction (*bonification*) amounting in some cases to 30 per cent. upon the contribution of the employer, to be allowed where all due measures for safety are observed in the establishment. The function of the Governing Committee is to settle the list of all the establishments of the various industries within the district, which are subject to the law, and to assign to each separate establishment its proper co-efficient of risk, to settle the reductions and fix the amount of contribution from each employer, and deal with every claim for compensation. Each employer is bound at the beginning of each year to make a return, which is subject to correction by the Governing Committee, of the number of workmen he has employed in the past year, the number of days each has been employed, and the salary paid to him. From this return and other official information the Governing Committee prepares the list of establishments of the district, commune by commune, showing for each establishment: (*a.*) The class to which it belongs in the classification issued from the Higher Council. (*b.*) Its co-efficient of risk, being such one of the three degrees of the co-efficient assigned to the class by the Higher Council as appears to the Governing Committee to be most suitable to the particular establishment; and (*c.*) the reduction to be allowed, if any. If several different industries, with different co-efficients are carried on in the same establishment each has to be treated as a separate establishment. The list is sent to the Mayor of the Commune. Any employer may object to his own classment or co-efficient; and anyone whosoever may apply for anyone else to be put on the list of contributory employers.

Lists of industrial establishments, with co-efficients of risk.

At the end of ten days the Mayor forwards the list together with any objections or applications he may have received, to the Sectional Committee, who in turn forward it with their observations to the Governing Committee, who settle it. Any omissions of establishments from this list may be subsequently rectified by supplementary lists, and the proprietors made to contribute. The list so settled

(4) *See* German Report, Vol. V., of this series, pp. 70-75.

is final, except that any employer may within three months appeal to the Council of the Prefecture for the Department (*Conseil de Préfecture du Departement*) on the ground that the co-efficient of risk assigned to his establishment is not authorised by the legal classification.

The Governing Committee will thus be in a position to issue a list of contributories, together with the contributions of each, necessary to provide the total amount of the last year's compensation.

In case of the default of the Governing Committee to levy the contributions, the Minister of Commerce and Industry will appoint persons to do so.

Compensation.

When the accident is fatal, the compensation is:—

(*a.*) Funeral expenses, equal to 20 times the daily pay, *i.e.*, the pay on the day of the accident, but not to exceed 100 francs.

(*b.*) To the relict—

An annuity for life - - -	20	per cent. of annual salary.

(*c.*) To children—

If only one, an annuity up to 16 years of age - - -	15	„ „
If only two, an annuity up to 16 years of age - - - -	25	„ „
If only three, an annuity up to 16 years of age - - - -	35	„ „
If only four, an annuity up to 16 years of age - - - -	40	„ „
Or if orphans, to each child an annuity up to 16 years of age -	20	„ „
The total not to exceed - -	40	„ „

(*d.*) If neither relict nor children, then

To each grandparent a life annuity -	10	„ „
But total not to exceed - - -	20	„ „

When the effect of the accident is permanently to disable, then the compensation is:—

(*a.*) If disability be the total, *i.e.*, if the workman be unable to earn anything towards his livelihood, a life annuity equal to two-thirds of annual salary.

(*b.*) If disability be partial, *i.e.*, if the workman be able to earn something, but not sufficient for a livelihood, the life annuity of two-thirds is subject to a corresponding reduction.

Annual salary means the remuneration (in cash and emoluments) actually received during the year preceding the accident; if the employment has been for less than a year, then the remuneration actually received during the period of employment, plus the salary received by a workman of the same category in the same industry during the remainder of the year. If the employment is in a trade which only lasts part of the year, then annual salary means the salary received during the period of activity, plus any other salary received during the rest of the year. In the case of a youth or an apprentice, the annual salary is taken to be that of the lowest workman in the same enterprise.

When the effect of the accident is to temporarily disable, "temporary indemnities" are given as follows:—

(*a.*) Medical expenses.

(*b.*) Allowance during continuance of disability at the rate of half of annual salary, but not to exceed 3fr. 50c. a day.

These "temporary indemnities" up to the end of the first month fall upon the individual employer, after that on the district.

Exceptions.

An accident which disables for only three days or less does not count as an accident, and gives rise to no claim for compensation.

The compensation awarded may, within three years of the award, be revised, on the application of either party, with a view to its being either increased or decreased, on account of the consequences of the accident having in the meantime proved to be more or less severe than had been anticipated.

Choice of procedure.

A workman whose salary is under 2,000 francs can proceed only under the Bill, and forfeits his Common Law rights. If over 2,000 francs he may elect between proceeding under the Bill or proceeding under the Common Law, in which case compensation is subject to no statutory limit, but proof of negligence will have to be given by workman.

In the case of gross fault being established against the employer in a Common Law suit, the district is only liable for so much (if anything) as may be necessary to make up the damages to the statutory amount.

The Bill does not interfere with the Common Law right of the person injured against the third person who actually caused the injury, but in the event of this right being exercised, the district is only liable for so much (if anything) as may be necessary to make up the damages to the statutory amount.

Procedure.

When an accident takes place the employer has within 48 hours to notify it to the Mayor and send medical certificate. Then if the accident is fatal, or threatens to be so, or to occasion permanent disability, the Mayor forwards the notification to the Justice of the Peace (*Juge de Paix*), who holds a public inquiry, if necessary, with an expert, and within ten days forwards his report to the *Président du Tribunal Civil de l'Arrondissement.*(1)

Temporary indemnities, medical expenses, and funeral expenses are settled by the *Juge de Paix* of the canton where the accident took place. But for the annuities, there is a special procedure.

First, with a view to conciliation, if possible, the *Président du Tribunal Civil* calls together the representative of the district, the employer, and the injured workman, or, if he be dead, his representatives, and if they can settle it together, well; if not, the case is referred to a Board of Arbitration (*Tribunal Arbitral*). The Board sits at the capital of the arrondissement, and consists of three employers, three employed, and the *Président du Tribunal Civil* or his deputy. The three employers are taken from a list, which every year is officially prepared and revised, of all employers in the arrondissement who possess certain qualifications—*i.e.*, they must be 30 years of age, be able to read and write, and must have resided two years in the canton. The three operatives are taken from a similar list of operatives.

The process is that when a case comes on to be heard there are drawn by open lot:—

Six from the list of employers,
Six from the list of operatives,
Four supplementary jurors.

All of these are paid; each side can challenge three. The trial is public, and the decision is final, except that on a point of law there is an appeal to the Court of Cassation.

State intervention.

The order of the Board of Arbitration, or, where the parties have agreed, the order of the President declaring the right of a workman to a pension, will constitute a good claim against the National Fund for Insurance against Accidents (*Caisse Nationale d'Assurance contre les Accidents*) which will then pay the pension in Paris through one of its offices or in the departments through the local collectors and assessors (*les receveurs et percepteurs*). It appears that it is the duty both of the Governing Committee of the district and also of the Sectional Committee to see that the annuity is not continued after the death of the annuitant.

Somewhat similar arrangements are made for the payment of the temporary indemnities.

The National Fund for Insurance against Accidents will, if necessary, be financed by the Deposits and Consignments Fund (*Caisse des Depôts et Consignations*), the rate of interest being fixed by the Minister of Commerce and Industry and the Minister of Finance.

All payments made by the National Fund are in the nature of advances only and will, as above described, be repaid in the following year by the districts. The yearly budget of the expenditure of the districts will consist of:—

1. The capital required to provide the annuities awarded the year before.
2. The temporary indemnities of the year before.
3. The cost of administration of the year before.
4. Contribution to a reserve fund, such contribution not to exceed one quarter of the expenditure of the previous year.(2)

4.—The State and Organisation of Poor Relief.

(*L'Assistance Publique*).

(i.) Principles of relief of the indigent.

The ruling idea of public relief of indigence in France, the classic land of voluntary relief,(3) is best indicated by the words of M. Thiers in a celebrated report to the National Assembly in 1848: "The State like the individual should be charitable, but like the latter it should be so morally (*par vertu*), that is to say, freely." Charitable legislation thus acknowledges the moral obligation of not leaving real suffering unaided, but the right of any individual to claim assistance has never been explicitly acknowledged.(4) The aim has been to stimulate and to complete, or rather to further, the efforts of private charity by systematic administration. For example, (1) legislation has made of the boards of charity (*bureaux de bienfaisance*)

(1) *See infra*, p. 137-9 for definition of terms.
(2) For text of the Bill *see* Appendix, p. 126.
(3) Aschrott on the English Poor Law System, p. 105.
(4) On two occasions attempts were made to introduce the principle of obligatory assistance; under the Revolution, and in 1848. Under the former a whole system of relief was organised. Under the second attempt the provisional Government was compelled under pressure from the *émeute* to recognise the right of the people of Paris to work, and, of consequence, to relief. Of these two attempts nothing remains.

the chief avenue of public relief, while these boards are properly speaking only the recipients of private liberality (through subscriptions, donations, bequests), (2) the hospitals are primarily voluntary institutions and only secondarily subsidised by the State. "It is noteworthy "that private liberality shows itself most actively precisely . . . in the towns where the service of official "assistance is varied and complete and the resources "abundant."(1) For instance, in Paris, 20 million francs are counted on as coming from private charity alone. The organisation of relief of indigence in France is general, departmental, and communal. "It is general where it "proceeds directly from the central power whether under "the form of general establishments of charity or by "means of subsidies allotted to local institutions. It is "departmental where the charitable institutions are formed "and supported by the department, as are the lunatic "asylums or (in certain departments) the *depôts de mendicités*. It is communal where the charitable services are "supported by the commune."(2)

It is the last-named form which is the main official form in France; each commune is theoretically relied on for the assistance of its poor and its own poor alone. Any self-governing local institutions are considered as being in the municipal service.

Exceptions to the optional character of relief.

Two exceptions only exist to the rule of optional charity in France, viz., the care of lunatics and of deserted children. Another case might perhaps be added. Where departmental prohibition of mendicity exists, there the support of mendicity offices (*depôts de mendicité*) is enacted by law. These were designed as houses of correction by the decree of July 5, 1808, but they have practically become part of the hospital service of the country and generally receive only the infirm and incurables.(3)

The State plays only a limited part in the assistance of the poor. The Minister of the Interior has the direct administration of certain "national charitable institutions," such as *l'Hospice des Quinze Vingts pour les Aveugles; La Maison de Charenton pour les Aliénés*, and others, and he exercises a general supervision over similar departmental institutions by means of inspectors (Decree of August 1870). Every year also a place is reserved in the estimates of the department for subventions, proposed by the general councils for various urgent cases of want. Extraordinary relief in favour of victims of accidents (*e.g.*, of floods and storms) is effected through the Ministers of the Interior and of Agriculture. In 1885 the State dispensed in these various ways 7½ million francs.

The two general kinds of relief.

The two distinct types of general public relief are on the one hand the hospitals and hospices or asylums, and on the other the *Bureaux de Bienfaisance*. These two services are united under one administration in Paris. Elsewhere they are separate and their composition and organisation are regulated by the laws of May 21, 1873, and August 5, 1879. A certain proportion of their income may be devoted by the hospitals to out-door relief (law of May 21, 1873), and this leaves, as far as is possible, only the able-bodied indigent to the care of the *Bureaux de Bienfaisance*. The laws set aside certain revenues to the support of these establishments, *e.g.*, certain local taxes, the revenues derived from fines for postal contraventions, and for insanitary dwellings, confiscations of property, &c. It is remarked that certain of the poorer communes which are without adequate charitable institutions neglect to claim some of these valuable sources of income.

(ii.) Departmental relief.

The departmental funds have also to support part of the expenses of poor relief; their application is proposed by the prefects and regulated by the general councils. The homes for foundlings are subsidised under the decree of Jan. 19, 1811, and the law of May 5, 1869, and the asylums for indigent lunatics under the law of June 30, 1838. The obligatory support of these institutions is justified on the obvious considerations of public order. The doctrine of obligatory relief of beggars where there is departmental prohibition of begging, was established by a Ministerial order of May 24, 1869, on the occasion of a dispute between the departments of Allier and Creuse on the subject of an infirm beggar who was domiciled in the latter department. The following are the chief charitable objects for which funds are annually voted by the greater number of the general councils: "Out-door relief, relief of indigent invalids and maternity cases, pharmaceutical stores, sending "indigent invalids to watering places (*eaux thermales*), "public relief works (*ateliers de charité*), aid to poor "travellers, pensions for old age and incurables, pensions "for children." The organisation of free medical service is established in at least half of the departments in France.(3)

(1) Dictionnaire d'Économie Politique. Leon Say, p. 72.
(2) Dictionnaire de l'Administration. Maurice Block p. 201.
(3) This section, with the exception of the note at the end of it, was written just before the passing of the law providing for compulsory medical relief of persons without means. The text of the law will be found in the Appendix.—G.D.

In 1885 the departmental relief expenses reached 30 million francs, of which only 423,000 francs were provided by foundations.

(iii.) Communal relief.

The main type of communal relief is the *Bureau de Bienfaisance*, of which only one may exist in a commune, and which operates only within the commune. By a ministerial circular of June 25, 1873, a municipal council can only distribute relief independently if there is no communal bureau; they may then, if they judge it to be necessary, distribute relief through a charity commission or by undertaking special charitable works. The only compulsory charity for the communes is in the contribution to the homes for foundlings and lunatic asylums.

Indigent invalids are treated in communal hospitals if these exist, and so long as a bed is vacant may not be turned away. If there is no hospital in the commune, their admission to a hospital in another commune is dependent on payment of a certain sum by the commune in which the invalid is domiciled (law of August 7th, 1851). Free medical service is to be found in a very large number of communes (grouped in cantons) aided by subsidies from a special credit in the budget of the Minister of the Interior. Public relief works (*ateliers de charité*) wherever they are undertaken, and then optionally, are undertaken by the communes. The "wages paid are always lower "than the market rate."(4) These undertakings are not subject to any legislation.

Ateliers de charité.

Funds administered by the communes.

In 1885, exclusive of Paris, the communes administered 28 million francs in relief. M. Emile Chevalier points out that the spirit of charity is very little developed in many country communes. "The inhabitants, being less rich, "give less . . . Relief, they say, engenders misery, "attracting to or retaining the poor in their communes; "organisation on their part of a service of relief is not to "be counted on . . . their temperament is foreign to "the idea of initiative in this matter."(5)

The solution of part of the difficulty is to be found by establishing easy terms of transfer for country invalids to the big institutions in the towns where too many beds are often vacant. Departmental aid would have to be called in to effect this change.

(iv.) Relief in the Paris and Lyons communes.

The administration of relief in the metropolis is distinct from that of provincial communes. There is one administration for its various forms, and this effects a real economy of its large resources. The control is through the Director of Public Assistance, together with a Council of surveillance. The resources are the same as in the provinces, but the share of the municipality in providing them is enormously greater, being in 1891, one half of all the other resources.

At Lyons, as at Paris, the municipality plays an important part; but the ancient foundations in Lyons, and the general revenues for relief purposes are so great that they are applied throughout the department of the Rhône, and even in other departments. In Lyons the Mayor is *ex-officio* president of the Surveillance Committee of Public Relief, and the Archbishop honorary president, though there is in addition an ordinary acting president.

The following tables from the Statistique Générale show the actual state of the provision for the indigent in France. A table showing operations of the State pawnshops (*Monts-de-Piété*) is added.

TABLE XXXIX.

BOARDS OF CHARITY.

(Bureau de Bienfaisance.)

1889.

Population of the parishes after the last census was taken		26,049,703
The number of Boards or Commissions of Charity in the parishes		15,308
Number of people relieved	French	1,616,481
	Strangers	55,871
Number of reliefs given		14,756,910

RECEIPTS.

Revenues obtained from real property and invested capital. Proceeds of the sales of moveable or real property effected during the year.		15,747,753
Grants	Parish	12,152,475
	Special	808,456

(4) Dictionnaire de l'Administration, p. 219.
(5) Dictionnaire de l'Économie Politique, article *Ass. Pub.*

Certain Rates.		
Receipts coming from public or private charity.	(Droit des Pauvres, sur le produit des spectacles, bals et concerts)	1,346,730
	Result of collections, poor boxes, subscriptions, &c.	2,769,094
	Donations and legacies	3,040,495
Other ordinary or special receipts		3,869,572
Total		39,734,575
Total funds from voluntary sources		13,275,172
Expenses.		
Expenses of Administration.	Expenses of the Board — Staff	2,460,306
	Expenses of the Board — Appliances	407,159
	Other expenses of administration (the support and maintenance of immovables, large buildings, &c.)	2,574,878
Relief — In kind (rated as money)	Food	13,098,389
	Clothing	1,331,668
	Heating	1,254,424
	Medicines and medical fees	3,093,873
	Other help of the kind	2,012,896
Relief — In money		10,088,272
Total		36,321,865
Investments.		
Total amount of investments.	In real estates	5,866,076
	In rents	21,664,016

STATISTICS OF THE OFFICES FOR MENDICITY
(Des Depôts de Mendicité).

Table XL.—Hospital Staff.

Number of Establishments.	Staff.	Nuns.	Inspectors and Nurses.	Total Staff.
30	131	180	268	579

Table XLI.—Numbers Relieved.

Kind.		Number of Days Present.	Number of Beds.
Placed in Ward (Reclus)	Men	316,221	1,643
	Women	91,124	706
	Children	100	16
Relieved (Assistés)	Men	1,420,657	4,319
	Women	756,381	2,449
	Children	69,962	308
	Total	2,654,445	9,441

Table XLII.

Staff and Appliances of the Invalid Establishments.

Class.	Paris.	Departments.	France.
Number of invalid Establishments:			
Hospitals	27	281	308
Infirmaries	—	882	882
Convent Hospitals	16	433	449
Total	43	1,596	1,639
Staff:			
Doctors and Surgeons	188	2,788	2,976
Nuns	154	11,001	11,155
Employés	170	2,761	2,931
Servants	3,640	9,877	13,517
Total	4,152	26,427	30,579
Appliances. Beds used:			
For those ill:			
Military beds	—	13,253	13,253
Non-military beds	11,739	53,505	65,244
For infirm, old, and incurables	11,870	49,931	61,801
For Foundlings	790	13,731	14,521
For staff of the establishments	3,794	21,860	25,654
Total	28,193	152,280	180,473

Table XLIII.

Financial Situation of the Invalid Establishments.

Receipts and Expenses.	Paris.	Departments.	France.
Receipts.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
Regular income of the Establishments:			
Proceeds from real estate	2,598,759	17,050,526	19,649,285
Proceeds from State rents, parish rents, particular.	5,178,059	16,715,751	21,893,810
Transfer of rents, sale of real estates, loans.	1,089,910	4,200,807	5,290,717
Profits of the pawnshops	57,595	215,937	273,532
Grants:			
Parish grants	18,649,806	7,495,167	26,144,973
Special	1,517,000	630,134	2,147,134
Private charity and rates:			
Certain rates, (Droit des pauvres sur les spectacles).	4,438,142	339,765	4,777,907
Donations and legacies	5,275,146	4,732,842	10,007,988
Repayments of expenses:			
Of the ill, infirm and strangers, (paying).	2,770,242	9,735,181	12,505,423
Departmental allowances for foundlings and strangers.	—	3,432,974	3,432,974
Various	3,787,331	2,902,924	6,690,255
Other receipts (fines, cemetery concessions, chapel fees, proceeds from burials, work of those ill, &c.).	888,195	6,031,175	6,919,370
Total receipts obtained in the year.	46,250,185	73,483,183	119,733,368
Voluntary funds from various sources reported in 1889.	2,624,698	17,850,405	20,475,103
Total amount of receipts	48,874,883	91,333,588	140,208,471

TABLE XLIII.—*cont.*

Receipts and Expenses.	Paris.	Departments.	France.
EXPENSES.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
Expenses for the administration of the property and income of the establishments.	730,571	5,277,967	6,008,538
Ordinary expenses:			
Staff	3,562,166	8,595,254	12,157,420
Appliances	7,505,699	8,976,396	16,482,095
Nourishment	8,581,442	25,358,332	33,939,774
Drugs	1,774,329	2,857,191	4,631,520
Out-door relief given	10,256,175	1,230,465	11,486,640
Various expenses, among which are expenses connected with the foundlings.	11,348,306	18,663,928	30,012,234
Total expenses	43,758,688	70,959,533	114,718,221
Amount of receipts exceeding amount of expenses	5,116,195	20,374,055	25,490,250

TABLE XLIV.—LUNATIC ASYLUMS.

	Masculine Sex.	Feminine Sex.	Total.
Existing on the 1st January 1889.	22,148	24,670	46,818
Entries	6,720	6,378	13,098
Total number treated	28,868	31,048	50,916
Departures	6,182	5,465	11,647
Remaining on the 31st December 1889.	22,686	25,583	48,269

II.—Position on the 1st January 1889 of lunatics in the departments.

(*a*) Asylums:—

Lunatics treated in the asylums of the departments		34,657
,, ,,	hospitals	5,041
,, ,,	private asylums	7,120
	Total	46,818

III.—Expenses undertaken by the departments for lunatics under their charge.

Funds provided by the parishes		6,511,404
,, ,,	hospitals	62,470
,, ,,	families	1,394,385
,, ,,	departments	13,658,093
	Total expenditure	21,626,352

TABLE XLV.—FOUNDLINGS OR CHARITY CHILDREN (ENFANTS ASSISTÉ.)

Years.	Present on 1st January.				Admitted during the Year.		Total.			Left, &c.		Dead.				Remaining on Dec. 31st.				Expenses incurred through Children.			Years.
	At the Hospital.		In the Country.									At the Hospital.		In the Country.		At the Hospital.		In the Country.					
	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Enrolled.	Helped.	Total Expenses.	
SEINE DEPARTMENT.																							
1886	9	10	8,502	7,956	1,763	1,489	10,274	9,455	19,729	939	883	36	40	468	418	15	17	8,816	8,097	4,789,118	686,086	5,475,204	1886
1887	15	17	8,816	8,097	1,829	1,648	10,660	9,762	20,422	900	752	35	43	377	335	49	52	9,299	8,580	4,737,910	786,511	5,524,421	1887
1888	49	52	9,299	8,580	1,967	1,757	11,315	10,389	21,704	887	750	185	163	344	316	47	42	9,852	9,118	4,959,254	983,667	5,942,921	1888
1889	47	42	9,852	9,118	1,912	1,610	11,811	10,770	22,581	941	783	150	124	332	262	44	43	10,344	9,558	5,918,289	952,816	6,871,105	1889
OTHER DEPARTMENTS.																							
1886	801	798	19,610	17,828	4,655	4,123	25,066	22,749	47,815	3,530	3,034	305	255	657	602	825	874	19,749	17,984	6,517,683	4,334,599	10,852,282	1886
1887	825	874	19,749	18,056	5,478	5,083	26,052	24,013	50,065	3,657	3,538	270	227	530	478	1,075	1,102	20,520	18,668	7,125,124	3,926,730	11,051,354	1887
1888	1,002	965	21,781	19,875	5,123	4,765	27,906	25,605	53,511	3,460	3,187	324	277	643	606	1,041	1,042	22,438	20,493	6,946,133	4,270,627	11,216,760	1888
1889	1,041	1,042	22,438	20,493	5,346	4,894	28,825	26,429	55,254	3,475	3,110	310	266	622	557	1,102	1,034	23,316	21,462	7,179,575	4,228,383	11,407,958	1889
THE WHOLE OF FRANCE.																							
1886	810	808	28,112	25,784	6,418	5,612	35,340	32,204	67,544	4,469	3,917	341	295	1,125	1,020	840	891	28,565	26,081	11,306,801	5,020,685	16,327,486	1886
1887	840	891	28,565	26,153	7,307	6,731	36,712	33,775	70,487	4,557	4,290	305	270	907	813	1,124	1,154	29,819	27,248	11,863,034	4,713,241	16,576,275	1887
1888	1,051	1,017	31,080	28,455	7,090	6,522	39,221	35,994	75,215	4,347	3,937	509	440	987	922	1,088	1,084	32,290	29,611	11,905,387	5,254,294	17,159,681	1888
1889	1,088	1,084	32,290	29,611	7,258	6,504	40,636	37,199	77,835	4,416	3,893	460	390	954	819	1,146	1,077	33,660	31,020	13,097,864	5,181,199	18,279,063	1889

TABLE XLVI.—OPERATIONS of State Pawnshops (*Monts-de-Piété*), 1888.

		Number of things.	The Amount of sums lent.
			francs.
A.—Things pawned:—			
Number of Articles that have been pawned.	Under 5 francs	1,042,896	3,314,791
	From 5 to 10 francs	1,197,040	8,391,004
	„ 11 to 25 „	469,232	7,792,159
	„ 26 to 50 „	248,909	9,108,947
	„ 51 to 100 „	148,365	9,825,908
	„ 101 to 500 „	73,028	12,660,036
	„ 501 to 1,000 „	3,578	2,626,157
	Over 1,000 francs	2,374	6,164,586
	Total	3,185,422	59,883,588

B.—Things pawned, redeemed and renewed each month.

—	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Total.
Number of articles pawned.	297,641	241,351	249,488	262,878	266,150	251,305	294,921	290,518	251,984	274,786	255,259	249,141	3,185,422
Amount of sums lent (francs).	5,584,553	4,532,911	4,717,819	5,505,968	5,011,129	4,767,368	5,731,659	5,197,296	4,490,956	5,276,776	4,618,756	4,448,497	58,983,588
Number of articles redeemed.	222,154	206,468	233,711	239,435	241,642	239,438	248,996	253,254	243,360	250,789	227,397	234,760	2,841,404
Amount of sums lent on these things (francs).	4,599,196	4,027,542	4,412,621	4,588,490	4,783,578	4,616,365	4,803,447	4,915,823	4,513,113	4,912,359	4,517,299	4,414,306	55,104,139
Number of articles renewed.	122,880	110,608	118,755	112,993	112,638	109,584	120,554	117,304	115,721	123,510	114,885	109,455	1,388,887
Amount of sums lent on these things (francs).	3,275,377	2,798,163	3,125,612	2,925,394	2,965,004	2,882,907	3,299,130	3,003,350	2,897,456	3,271,236	3,039,486	2,864,864	36,347,979

C.—Sales.

		francs.	
Number of articles sold in the year		322,616	
Amount obtained from sales	Amount of loans	4,996,717	francs.
	Interest and expenses (including valuation)	489,173	7,086,092
	Amount of bonus	1,600,202	
A portion of this bonus reclaimed within the year		1,268,128	1,600,202
„ „ not „ „		332,074	

TABLE XLVIa.—VARIOUS INFORMATION.

		francs.
Amount of profit		559,666
Way of using this profit:—		
Expenses of Administration	Staff (including allowances to valuer)	2,640,658
	Appliances (maintenance of property, buildings, rents, &c.).	888,265

(vi.) New law providing free medical aid, July 18, 1893.

A law providing free medical aid for the indigent sick, which was passed by the Chamber of Deputies last year, and discussed in the Senate in several sittings during the session just closed,(1) has been recently promulgated.(2) It gives all the sick poor of French nationality a right to free medical aid within their own homes or in a hospital. Women approaching confinement are classed as sick. Foreigners resident in France will be entitled to medical aid, if a treaty to that effect has been concluded with their Government. In each department the service of medical aid will be under the prefect, with local communal *bureaux d'assistance*. A special organisation will be accorded by the Minister of the Interior to those communes which show special efficiency in their provision of medical aid.

5.—THE HIGHER COUNCIL OF LABOUR AND THE "OFFICE DU TRAVAIL."

(i.) Institution of the council by decree January 22, 1891.

On January 22, 1891, a decree was promulgated which established the Higher Council of Labour under the direction of the Minister of Commerce, Industry and the Colonies. In accordance with this decree, it was composed of 50 members, nominated at the request of the Minister of Commerce and Industry, and chosen among the following manufacturers, workmen, members of syndical chambers or other associations, *conseils de prud'hommes*, and persons specially informed on economic and social questions. The following are *ex-officio* members of the Council:—

Ex-officio members.

The Director of Home Commerce.
The Director of Technical Education.
The Director of Railways at the Office of Public Works.
The Director of Roads, Navigation, and Mines at the same Office.
The Director of the Department of mutual aid societies at the Ministry of the Interior.
The Director-General of Deposits.
The Director General of Works of the City of Paris.
The President of the Paris Municipal Council.
The President of the Paris Chamber of Commerce.
The President of the Tribunal of Commerce of Paris.

The vice-presidents and secretaries of the Council are nominated by the Minister and appointed by Ministerial decree. The members of the Council are appointed for two years. Half the number are chosen by lot to retire every year, but the retiring members are re-eligible.

Presidency of the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

The Council assembles on the invitation of the Minister of Commerce and Industry, who fixes the date, duration and object of each session. The Minister may also institute a permanent Commission chosen among the members of the Council. Temporary committees or commissions are formed to study particular labour problems. The Council may, with the Minister's sanction, institute inquiries and take evidence from those whom it may consider capable of throwing light on such problems. The members of the Council may be granted attendance fees and travelling expenses by special decision of the Minister. A credit of 25,000 francs was voted in the budget of 1891 to meet the expenses of the Council.

Despatch explaining the constitution of the council.

A despatch was annexed to this decree, addressed to the president, which explained that the Council was formed on a basis "analogous to those of other consultative bodies "attached to the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, and "that it was specially designed as an instrument for "examining proposals and preparing solutions on which "Parliament might be required to pronounce, its object "being to furnish rapidly and correctly such information "respecting labour questions as had previously been "obtained only after costly inquiries, the result of which "had for the most part not corresponded to the effort

(1) *See* "Journal Officiel" March 17, July 12, 1893.
(2) For text, *see* Appendix, p. 132.

" made."(1) The Commission of 1883, appointed to inquire into the conditions of workers in artistic industries, and the Commission of 1884, appointed to inquire into the position of working men's associations, may be taken as typical of such inquiries.

Decree appointing members.

A supplementary decree was published shortly after the decree of January, 22, 1891, which gave the names of those appointed. Among them, only 16 were workmen, the remainder being either deputies, senators, employers or specialists on labour questions.

Dissatisfaction at the labour exchange.

Great dissatisfaction was expressed by the labour party when the constitution of the Council became known, and murmurs were heard, especially among workmen's syndicates, when the actual composition of the Council was announced. The labour or socialistic party declared that it was essential that the majority of the Council should be directly nominated by workmen themselves, and not by Government. A meeting was promptly held at the Labour Exchange on January 26th, 1891, at which a resolution was passed urging those workmen who had been appointed to the Council to refuse to act on the ground that a Council so composed was anti-democratic, and could not be fit to deal with the problems which it was appointed to solve.(2) The members of the Labour Exchange, moreover, drew up a counter scheme for a council of labour which was to be composed of 110 members, of whom 80 were to be workmen, 15 members of the Chamber and 15 to be chosen among presidents and secretaries of Employers' and Mixed Syndicates.(3)

Counter scheme of the Labour Exchange.

First meeting of the Council.

In spite of such resolutions, however, only one workman councillor went so far as to resign at the first meeting of the Council, which was held on February 18th, 1891, under the presidency of M. Jules Roche, Minister of Commerce and Industry. Several of the workmen councillors on that occasion offered criticism of the composition of the Council.(4)

The chief work of the first meeting was to define the functions of the Council and to appoint special sub-committees for the consideration and investigation of special and pressing questions. These questions were four: (1) Arbitration in cases of disputes between workmen and employers. This question has since passed into a new phase,(5) the resolution of the Council having been partly embodied in law. (2.) Labour agencies or registries (*Bureaux de Placement*). Pending legislation, special attention has been given to this subject by the executive, and a Ministerial circular of May 25, 1893, emphasises the necessity for strict application of the law regulating the agencies. (3.) Wages, terms (dates) of payment, and distraint of wages. Bills on this subject are before both Houses of Parliament. (4.) Institution of a Labour Office. The resolution of the Council on this subject has been acted upon by the creation of this department of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. The resolution as to the general plan was, that the office should " undertake the collection and popularisation of all documents and information relating to " labour, and its relations with capital to hours of labour, " wages of workers, men, women, and children."(6) In detail, it was to collect statistics on numbers employed, and wages paid in various classes of industries, great and small; on condition and wages of agricultural labourers; on mutual aid and provident societies; on piecework and time work; on syndicates, and comparative numbers of organised and non-organised workers; on causes and settlement of strikes, disputes, lock-outs; on orphanages and industrial schools; on labour in prisons; on mortality among workers; on foreign labour legislation, and in general to centralise information on labour questions at home and abroad.

(ii.) Institution of the Labour Office.

A decree was published on August 21, 1891, which embodied, with some modification, the suggestions of the Higher Council for a Labour Office.

Composition of the Department.

The department consists of two sections, central and external. "The latter is composed of three permanent " travelling delegates, who collect information, which is " compared with that collected by the central section, " whose duty it is to draw up the reports. The wording of " the articles of the decree guard against any interference " with the work of other statistical departments, and the " two sections are placed under the management of a " director, who receives an annual salary of from 480*l.* to " 720*l.*; those of his clerks varying from a maximum of " 360*l.* to a minimum of 88*l.* The total staff does not " exceed 16 in number, and the annual grant for the " expenses of the bureau is 6,000*l.*"(7)

The opposition of the Labour Exchange has been persistent, and it has refused all information to the Labour department on the ground that it would be used against the interests of the working men.

But little need be said on the subject of the work that has been done by the Labour Office, in its two years of existence, with a small staff, and in face of opposition from the socialistic labour party. Reference has been frequently made in these pages to the publications of the Department. To its recently published and valuable work on arbitration and conciliation, it will shortly add an important statement on the conditions of labour (wages, hours, &c.) in large and small industries.

Second report of the Higher Council of Labour.

The second report of the Higher Council of Labour was published in the late autumn of last year (1892). Five meetings were held and resolutions were adopted on the following subjects:—

1. Encouragement by the State of all means for provision of cheap and healthy workmen's dwellings.
2. Formation of a permanent committee in the Council to consider associations for popular credit.
3. That the draft bill on co-operative societies(8) should become law as speedily as possible.
4. Formation of a permanent museum of social economy, on the lines suggested by the inquiry at the Exhibition of 1889.
5. That workshop and factory rules should be submitted to the approval of Conseils de Prud'hommes, in general assembly.

6.—Labour Agencies (*Bureaux de Placement.*)

(i.) Ministerial circular of May 25, 1893.

On May 25, 1893, a circular was addressed by the Minister of the Interior to the prefects of the departments and to the prefect of police. It ran as follows:—

" Many complaints are addressed to my department on the working of the authorised labour agencies, which are sent by individuals, guilds, and workmen's syndicates. These complaints followed by incidents in the public streets have aroused violent polemics in the press. In December last, and even more recently, the question has been brought before the Chamber of Deputies, where the conditions under which the industry of labour agencies have been carried on, have given rise to discussions and criticisms, of which some seem justified.

" Under these circumstances and without waiting for modification of existing legislation, I consider that it is time to guard the strict application of the provisions of the decree of March 25, 1852. I draw your attention specially to Articles 4 and 5, which seem to me to sufficiently provide means for repression of abuses in certain labour agencies.(9) I beg you to direct the authorities under you to actively supervise the authorised agencies in your department, and, in case of infringement of the conditions imposed on them you will not hesitate to bring the delinquents before the competent tribunals."(10)

Complaints against the labour agencies.

It was with a view replacing these labour agencies that the Labour Exchange was ostensibly started, in order, *i.e.*, to offer better facilities for employers to engage workmen, and to free the latter from the heavy fees charged by the agencies. The high fees charged were not the only cause of complaint. Abuses arise through the fact that it is not to the interests of the agencies to arrange for permanent engagements, a circulating *clientèle* is obviously productive of more business to them. It asserted that cases of collusion between the registry or agency offices and employers who divide the fees, have been frequent, and that a regular system of crimping (*racolage*) is carried on(11) by means of agents who wait at the railway stations and catch unwary countrymen in the streets.

(ii.) Investigation by the Higher Council and the Labour Office.

The subject was investigated, as has been already pointed out, during the first session of the Higher Council of Labour. Since the publication of the report of the committee appointed in the Council, an important historical and statistical volume on the subject has been issued by the Labour Office.(12) The conviction expressed in the report that suppression of registry offices would bring about such disturbances as took place after a similar attempt in 1848,(13)

(1) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. xxv.
(2) Annuaire de la Bourse du Travail 1892, p. 36.
(3) *Ib.*, pp. 27-9.
(4) Conseil Supérieur du Travail. Première Session, Paris. 1891, pp. 7 and ff.
(5) *See* above, Law of Arbitration, p. 51, and infrà pp. 104-5.
(6) Report cited, p. 197.
(7) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. xxvi.
(8) Cf. infra, Appendix XII., p. 121.
(9) *See* Appendix XX., p. 139.
(10) Journal Officiel, May 13, 1893, p. 274.
(11) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. xi.
(12) "Le Placement des Employés, Ouvriers, Domestiques," Paris, 1893.
(13) Conseil Supérieur du Travail, Première Session, 1891.

seems fully borne out by the exhaustive statistics of the publication of the Labour Office. The report at the same time pointed out—(i.) that labour exchanges were not sufficiently organised or universal to take the place of the agencies in question, and that certain inconveniences were attached to management of labour offices by the municipality; (ii.) that the law of March 24, 1884, had provided in Article 6 for a remedy by permitting syndicates to freely institute information offices for the demand and supply of labour.

This remedy, the committee's report pointed out, was actually coming into operation, and might with advantage be encouraged by special Government grants.

(iii.) Tables showing the work done by various kinds of agencies.

The following tables, drawn from the above-mentioned publication of the Labour Office,[1] will sufficiently indicate the relative importance of the various kinds of labour agencies in France:—

TABLE XLVIIa.—SHOWING KINDS OF LABOUR AGENCIES IN FRANCE IN 1891.

1. Agencies authorised by law	1,374
2. Agencies of Syndical Chambers:	
(1) Of employers	54
(2) Of employed	322[2]
(3) Joint	13
3. Free Municipal Agencies	24
4. Journeymen's agencies	32
5. Mutual Aid Societies' agencies	59
6. Charitable Societies' agencies	76

TABLE XLVIIb.

SHOWING—

	(a) Demand and Supply for Engagements, and		(b) Engagements effected by various agencies.	
	Demands for employment.	Offers of employment.	Permanent engagements.	Engagements by the day.
1. Agencies authorised by law.	2,495,079	938,237	489,459	361,991
2. Agencies of Syndical Chambers:—				
(1) of Employers	22,594	20,851	18,396	430
(2) of Employed	122,666	71,639	86,124	8,538
(3) Joint	2,558	1,882	1,896	1,396
3. Free municipal agencies	24,594	13,292	10,856	—
4. Journeymen's agencies	6,288	6,188	6,188	—
5. Mutual aid societies' agencies.	35,041	33,059	17,794	16,000
6. Charitable Societies' Agencies.	152,036	25,911	26,227	107,431

Fees charged by the regular agencies.

The amounts charged by the authorised agencies varied in the different trades. The following examples are chosen as representative of fees charged in Paris.[3]

TABLE XLVIII.

Registry Offices.	*Rate of Fees.*
1. Bakers' assistants	50 centimes a day for 15 days from engagement.
2. Café waiters	15 per cent of the wages as estimated by the employer, 50 centimes a day.
3. Millers' assistants	3 per cent. and 6 per cent. of annual salary.
4. Pastrycooks	$\frac{1}{5}$ of monthly wage, 25 francs maximum.
4. Domestic servants	3 per cent. of annual wages.

Trades provided for by the agencies.

The next table shows in detail the work done throughout France by the authorised agencies in the varlous trades.[4] It will be readily observed that these agencies stand outside the great manufacturing industries.

TABLE XLIX.

LABOUR AGENCIES AND THEIR WORK IN THE TRADES.

Trades.	Number of Agencies.	Replies sent to inquiry of the Office du Travail.	Value attributed to the Agencies by the Titulars.	Annual Number of			
				Applicants.	Offers of Places.	Engagements.	
						Of a Permanent Nature.	Of a Temporary Nature.
			Francs.				
Butchers, pork merchants	18	17	268,500	54,902	21,062	16,980	2,436
Bakers	91	81	620,285	121,118	47,332	25,971	40,114
Brewers	1	1	—	—	—	—	—
Hairdressers	30	29	207,275	84,837	22,929	15,006	42,047
Shoemakers	1	1	20,000	6,000	4,200	1,700	—
Domestics: for bourgeois households	1,036	717	5,249,099	1,378,124	611,774	254,716	52,440
Domestics: for farms	49	37	64,095	10,576	8,442	5,682	698
Employés: in commerce	4	4	82,000	20,340	3,120	1,776	252
Employés: in retail stores	2	2	125,000	8,400	7,200	6,760	240
Garçons: restaurants	74	61	1,601,710	712,848	149,984	88,952	193,380
Garçons: grocers	3	2	130,000	20,080	28,320	26,400	—
Garçons: millers	8	8	49,250	1,534	1,284	1,052	228
Garçons: dairymen	1	1	15,000	6,000	3,000	1,800	360
Teachers	17	9	390,000	24,840	12,132	6,480	396
Gardeners	2	2	100	120	120	120	—
Farriers	3	3	5,000	956	788	752	—
Sailors	22	9	50,000	6,468	1,668	1,200	—
Pastrymen, cooks	8	8	200,000	29,662	14,708	4,938	29,400
Tailors	1	1	—	24	24	24	—
Dyers	3	1	8,000	200	150	150	—
Totals	1,374	994	9,135,314	2,495,079	938,237	459,459	361,991

(1) "Le Placement, &c.," cited esp. cf., pp. 678-9.
(2) *See* footnote on p. 20.
(3) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 258., p. 15.
(4) "Le Placement," p. 468.

The free municipal agencies.

The working of the free municipal agencies is shown in detail by the following table.(1)

TABLE L.—SHOWING WORK DONE BY FREE MUNICIPAL AGENCIES.

Departments.	Towns.	Date of Foundation of the Agency.	Annual Number		
			Of Demands.	Of Offers.	Of Engagements.
Gironde	Bordeaux	1888	3,161	734	696
Marne	Sainte-Menehould	„	—	—	—
	Vitry-le-François	„	90	90	90
	Sézanne	„	—	—	—
Meurthe-et Moselle	Jarville pres Nancy	1891	—	—	—
Nord	Lille	1884	1,248	194	—
	Cambrai	1889	100	100	100
	Caudry	„	24	24	24
Orne	Flers	„	—	—	—
	La Firté-Macé	„	74	74	74
Seine	Paris 1st arrondissement	„	1,410	1,035	1,009
	Paris 2nd „	1891	975	295	150
	Paris 3rd „	1888	4,500	5,000	4,000
	Paris 4th „	1889	2,104	956	482
	Paris 5th „	„	284	284	284
	Paris 6th „	„	4,000	1,800	1,500
	Paris 7th „	„	—	—	—
	Paris 8th „	—	—	—	—
	Paris 9th „	—	—	—	—
	Paris 10th „	—	—	—	—
	Paris 11th „	—	—	—	—
	Paris 12th „	—	—	—	—
	Paris 13th „	1891	492	156	101
	Paris 14th „	1889	1,000	670	604
	Paris 15th „	1888	1,000	715	715
	Paris 16th „	—	—	—	—
	Paris 17th „	—	—	—	—
	Paris 18th „	1887	2,743	765	627
	Paris 19th „	—	—	—	—
	Paris 20th „	—	—	—	—
	Levallois Perret	1883	1,600	400	400
Seine Inférieure	Le Havre	—	—	—	—
Seine-et-Oise	Noisy-le-Grand	—	—	—	—
Haute-Vienne	Nantiat	1891	—	—	—
		Totals	24,805	13,292	10,856

Work done by the syndicates.

In the majority of the departments the work being done in this respect by the syndicates is gaining ground. Out of 3,253 syndicates applied to for information on the subject by the Labour Office, 1,212 replied. Among these, as shown in the above table, agency offices had been opened by 54 employers' syndicates, 322 workmen's syndicates, and 13 joint syndicates. To these agencies 147,818 applications were made for employment, and 94,372 offers of work were given; 106,306 engagements of a permanent nature were effected, and 10,364 of a temporary nature. These figures include the operations at the Labour Exchanges. The Labour Office invited the opinion of bodies and officials interested in the question of legislation on the agencies, and received replies from prefects, sub-prefects, mayors and syndicates. Among them 97 were in favour of maintaining existing legislation, 48 desired some modification of the law, and 93 asked for suppression of the authorised agencies. The decree of 1852 referred to was drawn up after a commission of inquiry at the Ministry of Commerce had reported on the subject. It provided that no one should open an agency or registry office for any trade, occupation, or employment whatever without special authorisation, first from the prefects, secondly from the municipal authorities, who were directed to grant it only to persons of well-known character. The municipal authorities are also directed to supervise the offices so as to ensure maintenance of order and just management.(2) This decree was never the subject of complaint until 1875. But since that time the institution has been constantly assailed. Various Bills have been presented to the Chamber for their suppression, the most prominent being one drawn up by M. Camelinat, and another by MM. Mesureur and Millerand.

Legislation

(iv.) Rise of the labour agencies.

The rise of the registry offices or labour agencies was a natural consequence—(i) of the suppression of corporations and guilds at the end of last century, and (ii) of the decay of journeymen's associations in the beginning of this century.

(i.) The personal methods of hiring labour.

At the same time it is important to observe that in an enormous number of cases the demand and supply of labour meet without any official intermediary or agency. In Paris especially, and in innumerable country places there are open markets or stands (*Grèves*) where the hire of labour is simply effected by a few words between employers and workmen. This is the commonest case of earch for the worker being made by the employer. Many similar engagements are made at inns, cafés, wine shop's, or other well-known places. More often the workmen seek an employer by offering their services at works or factories. This method is adopted by miners, navvies, metal workers, weavers, masons, carpenters and almost every kind of worker in the great industries.(3) Another method prevails largely in agriculture, mining, clothing and hand-weaving; it is the method of search for the worker by sub-contractors, and foremen commissioned for the purpose (*contremaîtres commissionés*). The employer in such cases hardly comes in contact with his subordinate workmen at all.

The method of advertisement in public prints exists in France as in England and hardly calls for special comment.

7.—STATE AND MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT OF LABOUR.

State monopolies.

In addition to certain artistic manufactures known as *manufactures nationales* (viz., Sèvres porcelain and mosaic, and Gobelins and Beauvais tapestry), there are three industries which are under State control in France, and which in fact form State monopolies. These are the tobacco, matchmaking and gunpowder industries. To these might perhaps be added certain convict or penitentiary works, *e.g.*, (1) at Nogent in the Haute-Marne, where grave complaints have been made by local cutlery workers as to the effect on their industry of cheap Government products, (2) at Fays Billot in the same department, where similar complaints have been made by basket workers.(4)

(1) "Le Placement," p. 611.
(2) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. 12.
(3) "Le Placement," p. 177-198.
(4) Report by M. Reybert, deputy, Chambre des Deputés, Session 1892, No. 1943.

No reports have ever been made public on the conditions of labour in French State factories, and the reports prepared by various Ministers on the conditions of work and wages of their workers, *e.g.*, by the Minister of Public Works and the Minister of Finances, are not accessible: Thus no statements can be made on the subject of State employment of labour except with caution and reserve.

Match-making.

The journalistic accounts of the strike in the match-making industry(1) early in this year seem to indicate that the conditions of employment in some of the State factories are not altogether satisfactory. The match factories are five in number. The factory at Trelazé near Angers, occupies 260 workers, of whom 170 are women. Strikes have taken place there in 1890, in 1891 and 1893. The production of matches amounts at Trelazé to five milliards a year, at Pantin to 14 milliards, at Marseilles to five milliards, at Bêgles three milliards, at Saintines one milliard, that is in all, 29 milliards.

It must not be forgotten in estimating the relations between the State as employer and its workpeople that, while none of the factories were mentioned in the first order of merit for prizes in the awards at the exhibition of 1889 for employers' institutions, yet the names of some of the chief officials appeared in the second and third orders of merit on that occasion.

Tobacco.

The *Annuaire Statistique* for 1891 shows the progress of the State monopoly in tobacco during the years 1815 to 1888. In 1815 the total quantity sold was 9,753,537 kilos, of which 772,134 kilos were exported. In 1850 the total quantity sold had mounted to 19,218,406 kilos, of which only 276,682 kilos were exported. In 1888 the total quantity sold was 36,020,985 kilos of which 301,495 kilos were exported. Expenses and produce of the sale were:—

——	1815.	1850.	1888.
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
Expenses - -	3,742,105	17,673,379	36,231,655
Produce - -	53,631,250	121,311,282	368,494,470

In 1888 the sums paid into the Treasury amounted to 306,272.889 francs. In 1889 this sum rose to 314,237,316 francs.(2)

There are 15 national tobacco factories established in Paris (two), Havre, Morlaix, Toulouse, Bordeaux, Tonneins, Marseilles, Lyons, Lille, Nantes, Châteauroux, Dieppe, Nancy, Riom, Dijon, Nice, Le Mans, Pantin. All the works are directed by a Council composed of a director, president, engineer, sub-engineer, and controller. The members of Council meet every day to arrange for current business. The director is the chief of the establishment and directs the whole service, the engineer is in charge of the technical work, manufacture, construction, and working staff. The cultivation of the plant in the departments is regulated under a *Directeur des Tabacs* and in the departments there are a special inspector and special commissioners to overlook the cultivation in detail. Cultivation of tobacco is only authorised in a certain number of departments (not above 22) and every process is closely controlled, from the measurement of the area under the plant up through all its stages. As a writer in the *Journal des Économistes* points out, State conduct of agriculture and industry in France need not be discussed hypothetically; practical experiments have been long enough made to enable the theorists to test their conclusions by observation of actual processes.(3) Any would-be planter of tobacco must obtain permission from a local commission composed of five persons, of whom the prefect is president. Not less than 10 acres may be laid under the plant by one cultivator. The harvest must be handed over entire to the authorities; if there is a deficit or the amount is less than that expected the matter is made the subject of a special inquiry by experts. When the authorities have all that they require from a planter he is compelled to destroy the rest, even the gleanings in the fields. Infringements of the many Government regulations by the planter are subject to heavy fines. "No one will "be surprised that this organisation has often given rise "to discussion on points of economy and order between "the representatives of the Government and of agricul-"ture."(4) On all points, it is asserted, "there is dis-"cipline ill-understood and of excessive rigour, an ex-"aggerated opposition to all individual initiative, and a "marked tendency to reduce the planter to the position "of a machine for sowing and planting. . . .(5) As "for expense, this special form of cultivation is open to "all the criticisms which are ordinarily brought against "State industries. The staff is too numerous . . . and "is inferior in strength, activity and intelligence to those "in private industries." The statistics of increased and increasing revenue from tobacco hardly seem to bear out all the criticisms of the writer quoted.

(ii). Municipal socialism.

Municipal socialism was declared by the International Jury of 1889 to be more dangerous than State socialism, and especially so in France, where the vagueness of the law and the peculiar relation in which the municipal authorities stand to the prefect or representative of the executive may favour the rapid development of certain forms of socialism.(6) "Our municipal law does not define "the attributes of the communal councils. It is true that "it includes a fairly long enumeration of decisions which "are dependent on approbation of the prefect. This is "the system of tutelage. The result of this system of "authority is that one finds an understanding among those "working under it that *all which is not forbidden is* "*permitted*. But interdictions are always unpopular." In effect the municipalities easily slide into undertakings which would be opposed by a respectable minority among the electors if they could make their wishes felt. "The "tutelary authority is always at hand to correct abuses ". . .", but it is apt to exercise its strength according "to the views of the political party in power. And thus "it happens that the decisions of the Paris Municipality "relating to conditions of labour and grants of subsidies "to strikers have sometimes been ratified, sometimes "annulled, by the prefect according to the shade of "political opinion held by the Minister of the Interior."(7)

The Paris commune.

At the same time it should be noted that the Paris Commune has an independence that is hardly shared by other communes in France. In 1882 it adopted, with the approval of the prefect of the Seine, a series of measures regulating the public works of the town which established exceptions to the common law; working men's associations, for instance, were exempted from the necessity of depositing securities for the execution of works undertaken. The circular of 1888 has already been alluded to in connection with co-operation.(8) Special arrangements for reserve funds in case of accidents to workers and a standard *série des prix* or tariff of wages were also made in 1882. Throughout the administrative control of public works in France, there are provisions for the relations of contractors (*entrepreneurs*) to their workmen.(9) Contracts are investigated by contract commissions. The standard rate of wages drafted in 1882 remained until 1888, when the Municipality attempted to revise it. "It "was known to everyone that ordinary labour wages had "fallen from 6*d.* to 4*d.* an hour in the interval; yet the "Council passed a resolution enacting that wages of men "employed by the Municipality should be regulated by "the standard of 1882, that working days should be "limited to nine hours, that one day's rest per week was "obligatory, and that the sub-letting of contracts would "from henceforth be illegal. Several firms which had "been in the habit of contracting for municipal work "protested against these rules."(10) A strike among navvies complicated matters, and presently a majority of the contractors submitted to the rules of the Council. Certain firms gave in tenders under protest and asserted that the regulations were not binding. This was one of the occasions when the Government began by supporting the Municipal Council. The protesting firms appealed from the Minister of the Interior to the Council of State, and, in the spring of 1890, the latter gave judgment to the effect that the regulations of the Municipal Council were illegal and constituted an interference with freedom of contract between masters and men.

"Série des Prix."

There are no municipal workshops or tramways in France, but the Municipality of Paris have a right of interference in the matter of fares charged on the tramways, omnibuses and Seine steamers. The power is exercised in the direction of reducing the fares that are charged to a low level.

The municipal control of public funds has not as yet been seriously exercised in the direction of industrial enterprise. Once an attempt was made to start a tramway which was entirely unsuccessful.(11) In 1886 the Paris

(1) *See* supra p. 46.
(2) Dictionnaire D'Economie Politique. Leon Say, p. 971.
(3) Journal des Économistes, February 1893. L'Agriculture d'Etat, by E. Ratoin.
(4) Dictionnaire d'Economie, Politique, p. 970.
(5) L'Agriculture d'État, art. cit. Journal des Économistes, p. 205.
(6) Groupe de l'Economie Sociale, cit. pp. 555-564.
(7) *Ib.*, pp,. 563-4.
(8) *See* supra p. 74. Cf. Dictionnaire de l'Administration Française, p. 2,138.
(9) *Ib.*, p. 2,129.
(10) Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 213, p. 19.
(11) Rapport du Jury Internationale, Groupe d'Economie Sociale Part II., p. 560.

Municipality attempted a costly experiment in the form of a co-operative theatre, to be subsidised by the town and managed by an association of actors. This too was unsuccessful.(1)

Before the last municipal elections the only socialistic municipalities outside Paris were those of Saint Ouen and Roanne. But at the last elections an addition was made to the number of socialistic mayors and municipal councils. It is through this avenue that the chances of the socialistic party may be found.(2) The Socialist Congress of Marseilles recognised as of equal importance a socialistic agrarian campaign, with a programme, of which the first article was that a minimum agricultural wage should be fixed by the municipal councils.(3)

(iii.) *The Ateliers Nationaux* and M. Emile Thomas.

In view of sundry proposals of the socialists for recognition of the right to labour, the following account of the attempt made to establish national workshops under the Republic of February 20th, 1848, may be useful.

It should be recognised first, however, that a commercial crisis and panic following upon the revolution had thrown large numbers of workmen out of employment, and that one of the first problems the Government had to face was their control, while political intrigue and jealousy pressed too hard to admit of a calmly considered scheme.

The Provisional Government (*Gouvernement provisoire*) announced by decree of February 25th that it "guaranteed "the existence of the workman by labour," that it "recog- "nised the need of association among workmen to the "end that they might enjoy the legitimate fruits of their "labour," and therefore voted for this purpose a sum arising from the civil list, which "properly belonged to "them." M. Louis Blanc wished to effect the organisation of the workmen himself, and demanded the formation of a Ministry of Labour, of which he should be chief; but the majority of the Provisional Government seeing danger in this arrangement refused, and only under considerable pressure consented to the formation of a State Labour Committee, of which M. Louis Blanc was appointed president, and M. Albert, a workman, vice-president. A committee composed successively of 750 delegates from all trades then began to hold meetings at the Luxembourg under the presidency of these leaders, the members being elected in a very irregular manner. The decree of February 25th was shortly followed by another, ordering the immediate establishment of national workshops under the care of the Minister of Public Works. On February 28th the Minister of Public Works ordered that from March 1st important works should be set on foot at various points and that "all workers wishing to take part in them should "apply to one of the mayors in Paris who should imme- "diately direct them to the yards or works." Certain operations at different points were accordingly begun and preparations made for employment of nearly 3,000 workers. The Minister of War at the same time opened a workshop at the Champ-de-Mars.

The admission to these various works operated as follows:—

Each applicant for work presented a certificate from his landlord stating that he lived in Paris or in the department of the Seine. The certificate had to be seen and stamped by the commissary of police of the quarter, and when delivered to the mayor of the district (*arrondissement*) was exchanged for a ticket of admission to the national workshops. When the number of applicants began to exceed the number of vacancies, the workmen, after fruitless visits to the various works, began to return to their districts "worn out, hungry, and discontented." At first a promise of bread in default of work was given, but instead of this a distribution of money began at the *mairies*.

Every mayor was authorised to pay the sum of 1fr. 50c a day to any man unable to find employment; this was at a time when men employed as navvies received 2 francs a day. Two central labour bureaux were established, and if no work was to be had at either, men returned to the mayor of their district and claimed their 1fr. 50c as out-of-work pay.

"Soon the workmen arrived at this simple calculation: "'The State gives me 30 sous for doing nothing, and pays "'me 40 sous for working, therefore I owe the State no "'more work than is worth ten sous.'"(4)

The disorganisation consequent upon this system aroused serious apprehensions in the minds of the members of the Provisional Government, and they induced M. Emile Thomas to undertake a semi-military organisation of the labourers on the principles of Saint Simon. As "Commissary of the Republic" he assumed the directorship of a free general labour bureau, which, in addition to organisation of labour, also supervised the giving of relief. The unemployed, who were estimated at 17,000, were formed into gangs and sub-gangs or divisions under officers of their own election; the head of a gang received 3 francs a day, the head of a division 2fr. 50c. for every working day, and 1fr. 50c. when unemployed; labourers were paid 2 francs a day on working days, and 1fr. 50c. if deprived of work.

Provision was made for the payment of the sick, for their treatment in the hospitals, and for the distribution of bread and meat to their families.(5)

Rules were drawn up for the maintenance of discipline among the workmen, and the breach of them punished by fines and dismissal. Tools were provided at the expense of the nation.

The first obstacle encountered was the difficulty of finding work for the large number who applied; many were left idle in consequence, and the burden of their maintenance was so great that on March 16th a general reduction of wages was necessary, and was announced by an order of M. Thomas. Troubles arose immediately, partly from the excitement of party feeling and irritation against the Provisional Government and partly from jealousy between the new semi-military organisation and the old national guard. A manifestation led by ultra revolutionaries (*exploité par le parti rouge*) took place on the 17th, but calm was restored by the efforts of M. Thomas and his friends. This calm was accompanied by a recognition on the part of the workers that they had aroused alarm in the Government, and that their power of compressing them (*puissance de compression*) was considerable.

The workshops were reorganised under the influence of Buchez, with greater attention to details, and inspectors were appointed to supervise the works which were carried out. Again the lack of work created difficulty, for the Government could not incur the expense of works on a sufficiently large scale. "Only 12,000 workers could be "employed with the utmost exertions and the enrolment "(*embrigadement*) increased in alarming proportions."(6) In the end of March a new credit of 5,000,000 was made to the national workshops and a special office instituted to care for the needs of the unemployed.

Meantime work was almost at a standstill, and the members of the various corps occupied themselves in planting "trees to liberty" in every part of the city. The election of officers by popular vote proved a failure, and in future all candidates were required to pass an examination in the principles of land surveying. Increasing distress among the employés necessitated the formation of workshops for the manufacture of clothes and shoes, which, though sold at cost price, were beyond the means of men receiving 1 franc a day. In order to decrease the expenditure Emile Thomas was obliged to reduce the payment of the sick, to suppress Sunday pay, and to allow those who could find work elsewhere to discharge themselves. The principles of Louis Blanc were gaining influence among the workmen, and on 17th April a demonstration took place in the Champ-de-Mars with the object of forcing the Government to adopt his system; it ended, however, in failure.

The rivalry between the national workshops and the followers of L. Blanc continued to increase, until the workmen were denied a share in the review of April 22nd. M. Emile Thomas was elected to represent the workmen in Parliament, and did all in his power to employ the corps in a useful manner. Political agitation, however, revived, and caused the Government to look upon the national workshops as nests of sedition.

A commission was appointed on May 25th to investigate the affair. It required Emile Thomas to resign, and at the same time despatched him on a mission, described by himself as "illusory" and "fantastic," to Bordeaux. M. Lalanne was appointed to succeed him as director of the workshops, which were reorganised on a basis of task work. This was found ineffectual for the suppression of discontent and violence. The number of workmen began

(1) A labour colony was founded by the Paris Municipal Council at La Charmelle (Marne) in January, 1892, the land for the purpose (about 316 acres) being leased by the city to the department of the council which has charge of l'Assistance Publique. The type of men admitted is superior to those in the German colonies, admission being reserved for those who are recommended by the directors of night refuges as willing to work. Wages are paid at 50 centimes a day. Of the 106 entrants up to August 16th, 1893, 36 were placed in situations, 37 left of their own wish, 5 were expelled for misconduct, and 28 remained in the colony. The total cost was 32,000 francs, the receipts from the sale of farm produce 17,000 francs, and the net cost 15,000 francs. "It is too "soon to judge of the picked colonist system as carried on at La "Charmelle." *See Report on the Unemployed*, issued by the Board of Trade, 1893, p. 329.

(2) La Revue Socialiste, June 1893. Le Socialisme Communal.

(3) Les Syndicats Agricoles. Comte de Rocquigny, Paris, 1893, p. 139.

(4) Les Ateliers Nationaux. E. Thomas 1848, p. 30.

(5) *Ib.*, pp. 62-3 and Appendix.

(6) *Ib.*, p. 144.

at 6,000; in the "days of June" they were found to be at least 100,000, though their numbers were never actually known. On the 28th of June 1848 the "*Ateliers Nationaux* were entirely and suddenly dissolved."(1)

8.—Savings Banks.

National thrift encouraged in France.

In France, it is said, more than 140 million pounds are invested in savings banks alone; the number of persons holding savings in this form are over 7,500,000. The thrift of the people is thus not only directed towards purchase of agricultural land. "No effort is spared by "Government to encourage this inherent virtue in French "character, and among many admirable measures adopted "to encourage a habit of thrift may especially be mentioned the practice in vogue in schools of rewarding proficiency and diligence by crediting the boy or girl with "a few francs in a savings bank, instead of giving a prize or "book."(2) This practice has been adopted in some of the schools especially maintained by employers for the children of their workpeople.

Report of the *Bulletin de Statistique.*

The *Bulletin de Statistique* gives an account of the operations of the State savings banks and of private Savings banks in 1890.(3)

In the National Savings Bank first deposits in 1890 were, more numerous and considerable than they had ever been before. The net excess of the deposits over the withdrawals was 70,478,117 francs; deposits amounted to 261,999,132 francs; depositors were 1,949,371 in number; withdrawals effected were 191,521,015 francs.

The institution of branch banks has been recent and has greatly stimulated development of the habit of saving. A considerable reduction has been effected in the relative cost of administration with regard to the amount due to each depositor; in 1882 this cost was ·76 per cent., in 1890 it was reduced to ·47 per cent.

Capital held by the National Savings Bank in 1890.

On December 31st, 1890, the National Savings Bank held in French Government securities a capital of 366,384,471 francs 41 centimes. The revenues for the year amounted to 13,733,123 francs 71 centimes, while the expenses were 2,084,398 francs 29 centimes. As the revenue applicable to administrative expenses were settled at 2,846,104 francs 48 centimes, the bonus realised amounted to 761,706 francs 19 centimes.

The total receipts of the private savings banks in 1890, including interest, credit of transferred accounts, arrears of *rentes* collected by the banks and the capitalised interest in favour of depositors was 985,338,616 francs. In 1889 it was 872,068,495 francs. On December 31st, 1890, the depositors numbered, 5,761,408; deposits amounted to 2,911,722,358 francs; average for each depositor was 505 francs 38 centimes.

Proportion which investors in private savings banks bear to total population.

With regard to the total population it may be noted that there were 151 depositors in 1,000 or rather over one-sixth of the population, and these figures mean a saving of 76 francs 19 centimes per head of the total population.

"Profiting by the authorisation given by virtue of the "Order of June 3rd, 1829, and the law of June 5th, 1835, "savings banks deposit the funds collected by them in "current account at the Deposit Office, which, by virtue of "the law of March 31, 1837, was charged with the administration of such accounts under the guarantee of the "Public Treasury and the surveyance of the Special Commission instituted by the law of April 28, 1816. The "total of the sums due by the Deposit Office on December "31, 1890, to private savings banks in France, Algeria and "the colonies, both for funds belonging to the depositors "and that portion of the personal estate left in current "account, amounted to 2,960,317,034 francs, of which "2,953,007,251 francs were due to savings banks of Paris "and the provinces, and 5,231,312 francs to those in "Algeria."(4) The interest allowed to the savings banks by the Deposit Office amounted to 112,478,256 francs.

The transactions of the savings banks in 1890 were characterised by the very great and simultaneous development of the deposits, which were 869 million francs, and of the withdrawals, which were 739 million francs. The balance due to depositors on December 31st was 2,911 million francs. "The marked progress observed is only "due to the excess of deposits over the withdrawals of all "kinds to the extent of about one half, the surplus being "derived from the capitalisation of interest."(5)

By uniting the statements for private and for the national banks in December 1891 the figures are:—

Total number of accounts - -	7,671,213 francs.
Balance due to depositors - -	3,558,071,284 „

(1) "Histoire des Ateliers Nationaux." Emile Thomas.
(2) Cf. Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 258, p. 29.
(3) Report cit., pp. 138-147.
(4) *Ib.*, pp. 142-3.
(5) *Ib.*, p. 145.

Supplementary note on savings banks in 1892.

The report of the Minister of Commerce and Industry to the President of the Republic on the working of savings banks in 1892, stated that while the number of these institutions authorised during the preceding year had been 544, their number was 545 for 1892, after deduction had been made of 21, which were closed (*supprimées*) in the same year.(6) These numbers include banks which are entirely under municipal control (and which number nearly three-fourths of the whole), those which are partly under municipal control, and those independent of such regulation; two of these last were attached to *Monts-de-piété* and were managed by the Council of the same. The increase on the whole was not so great as in preceding years. The total number of working banks (*en activité*) for 1892 was 2,033 including dependencies (*succursales et percepteurs*), while the numbers of new deposits were 3,508,348, amounting to a sum of 879,862,096 fr., 54 c. On December 31st. the average deposit for each of the 6,121,283 possessors of certificates (*livrets*) was 527 fr. 25 c. Nearly half of the certificates were held by women, of whom the majority were married. This fact affords "testimony to the happy results of the law of 1881," which permitted married women to make deposits without special authorisation of their husbands. Only in a very small number of cases did the husbands avail themselves of their right to forbid the deposits. The personal property of the banks at the same date rose to 86,901,074 fr. 98 c. Part of this was held on account with the deposits and consignments fund. The general condition of the banks was stated to be of a most satisfactory character. A slight panic at one time had been raised in connection with the realisation of sums in the Deposits and Consignments Fund, but this had been successfully calmed by the directors in co-operation with the Government.

It is important to note the relative numbers of certificates issued to various classes of workers in the community. The total number of certificates issued in 1892 was 509,427, divided as follows:—

Class or Calling.	Male Depositors.		Female Depositors.		Total.	
	Number.	Percentage of the whole.	Number.	Percentage of the whole.	Number.	Percentage of new Certificates.
Employers, industrial and agricultural - - -	31,622	12·18	20,525	8·22	52,147	10·21
Agricultural labourers - -	34,259	13·20	19,395	7·76	53,654	10·51
Industrial workmen	43,718	16·84	34,376	13·76	78,094	15·30
Domestics - -	17,909	6·90	36,657	14·67	54,566	10·69
Soldiers and sailors	5,688	2·19	1,378	0·56	7,066	1·38
Clerks - -	16,485	6·35	5,567	2·23	22,052	4·32
Liberal professions -	6,090	2·35	2,961	1·20	9,051	1·77
Proprietors and persons without professions - -	26,798	10·32	57,221	22·88	84,019	16·46
Minors without profession - -	77,018	29·67	71,760	28·72	148,778	29·14
Total -	259,587	100·00	249,840	100·00	509,427	99·78
Societies and associations - -	—	—	—	—	1,113	0·22
Total -	—	—	—	—	510,540	100·00

The average numbers of certificates issued in the departments was 70,360 per department. Seventeen departments rose above this average, of which the following may be mentioned:—Seine, 629,000; Rhone, 296,800; Nord, 248,200; Seine, Inferieure, 215,400. The smallest figures are:—Haute-Savoie, 9,700; Ariege, 8,100; Lozère, 6,600; Corsica, 5,900.

Operations of the National Savings Bank, 1892.

The operations of the National Savings Bank in 1892 surpassed both in number and importance those of preceding years, and the prosperity of the institution was affirmed on all points.(7) Early in 1893 a crisis arose temporarily in connection with political causes, but the financial situation soon became normal. During 1892, 2,499,327 deposits, amounting to 388,088,103 fr. 31 c., were made. The net excess of receipts over repayments was 93,566,136 fr. 66 c. Four-fifths of this sum were converted into state bonds (*valeurs de l'etat françois*), and the rest entered in the current account of the Deposits and Consignments Fund.

Out of the 450,000 accounts (*comptes*) opened by married women without special authorisation of their husbands 32 were opposed or disputed by their husbands. The most numerous clients of the National Savings Bank in 1892, as in previous years, were to be found amongst persons without profession, domestics and industrial workers. The

(6) "Journal Officiel," November 16th. 1893, pp. 5, 6, 8 and ff.
(7) "Journal Officiel," November 23, 1893, p. 5,761 and ff.

figures showing the distribution of certificates in 1892 are as follows:—

Class or Calling.	Men.	Women.	Total.	Proportion per 100.
Employers, industrial and agricultural	27,128	9,224	36,352	7·46
Agricultural labourers	37,774	11,768	49,542	10·16
Industrial workers	46,096	21,986	68,082	14·00
Domestics	28,588	40,654	69,242	14·22
Soldiers and sailors	15,902	156	16,118	3·30
Clerks	29,852	4,902	37,754	7·75
Liberal professions	13,012	4,640	17,652	3·63
Proprietors and persons without profession	26,790	58,064	84,854	17·44
Minors without profession	62,092	44,776	106,868	21·97
Nomads	2,069	1,204	3,273	0·67
Totals	289,363	197,374	486,737	100·00

New certificates given also to societies of all kinds numbered 379, of which 120 were issued to mutual aid societies, 78 to trade syndicates, 32 to ecclesiastical bodies (*fabriques paroissiales*), 11 to agricultural bodies, 22 to charitable bodies, and 12 to co-operative societies.

Looking at the number of depositors in 1,000 inhabitants the following appear as the departments where the National Bank is best established:—Sarthe, 406; Rhone, 368; Loiret, 365; Yonne, 365; Seine.et-Marne, 362. The smallest figures are those for Haute-Savoie, 36; Ariège, 35; Corsica, 20. The Seine departmont has 200 in 1,000; Nord, 143; Pas-de-Calais, 111.

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX I.

The catalogue subjoined is drawn up on the five-fold scheme indicated on page 1.

I.—State and Parliamentary Documents.

(a.) *Bills deliberated in the Senate or Chamber of Deputies.*

Senate:

1. Government Bill(1) (adopted by the Chamber of Deputies relating to *employers' liability for accidents.* Session 1888. No. 552.

2. Government Bill (adopted by the Chamber of Deputies) relating to *labour of children, young girls and women.* Session 1889. No. 56.

3. Government Bill (adopted by the Chamber of Deputies) relating to *Pension, Provident, and Relief Funds.* Session 1891. No. 38.

4. Bill presented by M. Jules Godin, Senator, relating to *workmen's associations, associations of employers, and workmen* in view of *profit-sharing.* Session 1891. No. 93.

5. Government Bill (sent up a second time to the Senate by the Chamber of Deputies) relating to *labour of women and children.* Session 1891. No. 19.

6. Government Bill (adopted by the Chamber of Deputies) relating to *conseils de prud'hommes.* Session 1892. No. 75.

Chamber of Deputies.

7. Bill presented by M. Nadaud relating to duration of *hours of labour in works and factories.* Session 1885. No. 196.

8. Bill presented by M. Nadaud relating to *women's labour.* Session 1885. No. 197.

9. Bill presented by MM. le Comte Albert du Mun and others on the *protection of workmen injured by accidents* industrial employment. Session 1886. No. 391.

10. Bill presented by MM. Camelinat, Boyer, Basly, and others, on the *labour of women and children.* Session 1886. No. 1,098.

11. Government Bill on the regulation of the *labour of women and children.* Session 1886. No. 1,244.

12. Bill presented by MM. Le Cour de Lamarzelles and A. de Mun on *arbitration.* Session 1887. No. 1,847.

13. Bill adopted by the Chamber on the *labour of children, young girls, and women.* Session 1889. No. 1,087.

14. Bill presented by MM. Ferroul, Boyer, Cluseret, and others, on *reduction of hours to eight in mines, factories and workshops.* Session 1889. No. 43.

15. Bill presented by M. Le Baron Pierard on the *duration of hours of labour.* Session 1889. No. 106.

16. Government Bill (adopted by the Senate) on the *labour of children, young girls and women.* Session 1889. No. 221.

17. Bill adopted by the Senate, modified by the Chamber of Deputies, on *delegates for the safety of working miners.* Session 1890. No. 157.

18. Bill presented by MM. Guillemet, Managan, Laroche-Joubert, and many other deputies relating to *profit-sharing in State enterprises and concessions.* Session 1891. No. 1,428.

19. Bill adopted by the Senate and by the Chamber of Deputies, on the *labour of children, young girls, and women.* Session 1891. No. 447.

20. Bill presented by MM. Argeliès, Vilfeu, Conturier, and others, relating to the *conditions of work in transport industries.* Session 1891. No. 1,731.

21. Government Bill relating to *wages.* Session 1891. No. 1,506.

22. Bill presented by MM. Lagrange, Mesureur, and others, relative to application of Article 1 of the decree of September 9, 1848, to *employés in transport industries* under the Government. Session 1891. No. 1,433.

23. Bill presented by MM. Argeliès, Conturier, and others, on *a weekly day of rest.* Session 1891. No. 1,720.

24. Government Bill (twice returned to the Chamber by the Senate) relating to the *labour of children, young girls, and women.* Session 1891. No. 1,732.

25. Government Bill on *conciliation and voluntary arbitration.* Session 1891. No. 1,753.

26. Bill presented by M. Julien Goujon, relating to *reduction of hours of labour.* Session 1891. No. 1,412.

27. Government Bill relating to the formation of a *national pension fund for working men.* Session 1891. No. 1,473.

28. Bill presented by MM. Le Cour, de Mun, and others, on *accidents in industries.* Session 1891. No. 1,274.

29. Annexe to a Bill presented by MM. F. de Ramel, L. Gavrian, and others, on *pension funds for workers.* Session 1891. No. 815.

30. Bill presented by MM. Vian, Hubbard, and others, on *compulsory and gratuitous insurance* of workers against accidents. Session 1891. No. 1,526.

31. Bill presented by MM. Dumonteil, and Argeliès on *reduction of the day's labour to* 10 *hours.* Session 1892. No. 2,001.

32. Bill presented by M. Naquet on *profit-sharing.* Session 1892. No. 2,194.

33. Government Bill on *Co-operative Societies and profit-sharing.* Session 1892. No. 2,251.

34. Government Bill for the creation of a *society for popular and agricultural credit.* Session 1892. No. 2,311

35. Government Bill (adopted by the Senate) on *Mutual Aid Societies.* Session 1892. No. 2,413.

(b.) *State and Parliamentary Reports.*

36. Report of the Commission on *Workingmen's Associations* appointed by the Minister of the Interior. 1883. 2 parts.

37. Report of the Commission on the *condition of workers in artistic industries,* 1884 (appointed by the decree of December 24, 1881.)

38. Report presented to the Chamber by the Committee appointed to consider the Bills on *employers' liability and accidents* in industry. Session 1882. No. 1,334.

39. Report presented to the Chamber by the same Committee. Third report. Session 1884. No. 2,634.

40. Report of the Parliamentary Committee on the *Anzin strike.* Session 1884. No. 2,695.

41. Report presented to the Chamber of Deputies by M. Waddington in the name of the Committee on the Bills relating to *labour of women and children.* Session 1887. No. 2,204.

42. Report presented to the Senate by M. Charles Ferry in the name of the Committee on the Bill relating

(1) A *projet de loi* is a Government Bill, a *propcsition de loi* is a private member's Bill. The original text of the Statutes Bills, and some of the reports cited or translated in this Report, can be obtained by ordering back numbers of the "Journal Officiel," or "Bulletin des Lois." Copies of the Parliamentary publications can be ordered by the numbers cited.—G.D.

to *labour of women and children.* Session 1889. No. 182.

43. Report presented to the Chamber by M. Lyonnais in the name of the Committee on the Bills for *compulsory arbitration.* Session 1889. No. 3,856.

44. Report (with Annexes) presented to the Chambers by M. Richard Waddington in the name of the Committee on the *labour of women and children.* Session 1890. No. 649.

45. Report presented to the Chamber by M. Jacquemart in the name of the Committee on the Bills relating to *protection of wages* against seizure by creditors. Session 1890. No. 992.

46. Report presented to the Chamber by M. Chollet in the name of the Committee on *profit-sharing in State undertakings.* Session 1891. No. 1,480.

47. Report presented to the Senate by the Committee on the Bill adopted by the Chamber on *trade syndicates.* Session 1891. No. 120.

48. Report presented to the Senate by M. Tolain in the name of the Committee on Bills sent up by the Chamber on the *labour of women and children.* Session 1891. No. 138.

49. Another of later date, same session. No. 1,750.

50. Report presented to the Chamber by M. Gaillard in the name of the Committee on a Bill modifying the *law relating to trade syndicates.* Session, 1891. No. 1840.

51. Report presented to the Chamber by M. Dubois in the name of the Commission on Bills relating to *free registry offices.* Session 1892. No. 2,067.

52. Summary report to the Chamber on *work in prisons and convents.* Session 1892. No. 1,943.

53. Report presented to the Chamber by M. Ricard in the name of the Committee on *employers' liability.* Session 1892. No. 1,926.

54. Report presented to the Senate by M. Lourties in the name of the Committee on *co-operative societies.* Session 1892. No. 29.

55. Report presented to the Chamber of Deputies by M. Paul Guieysse on *workmen's superannuation funds.* Session 1893. No. 2,576.

(c.) *Statutes and Decrees.*

56. Law of September 9, 1848, regulating hours of labour in factories and works. *Bulletin des Lois.* No. 69.

57. Decree of May 17, 1851, bringing in exceptions to the law of September 9, 1848. *Bulletin des Lois.* No. 394.

58. Law on coalitions modifying articles 414-6 of the Penal Code. May 15, 1864. *Bulletin des Lois.* No. 1,206.

59. Law of May 19, 1874, on the labour of children and young girls. *Bulletin des Lois.* No. 204.

60. Decree of March 27, 1875, regulating the application of Article 2 of the law just cited. *Bulletin des Lois.* No. 255.

61. Decree of March 1, 1877, making addition to the decree just cited. *Bulletin des Lois.* No. 339.

62. Decree of September 22, 1879, regulating application of Article 13 of the law on the labour of children and young girls. *Bulletin des Lois.* No. 494.

63. Decree of October 31, 1882, further regulating application of the law and decrees just cited. *Bulletin des Lois.* No. 749.

64. Law of February 16, 1883, providing for inspection under the law of September 9, 1848. *Bulletin des Lois.* No. 756.

65. Law of March 21, 1884, relating to formation of trade syndicates. *Bulletin des Lois.* No. 846.

66. Decree of May 5, 1888, completing enumeration of dangerous or unhealthy undertakings. *Bulletin des Lois.* No. 1,172.

67. Law of November 2, 1892, regulating the labour of children, young girls, and women.

68. Law of December 27, 1892, providing for conciliation and arbitration in collective industrial disputes.

69. Law of June 12, 1893, relating to health and safety of workers in industrial establishments. *Journal Officiel,* June 13th, 1893.

70. *Journal Officiel de la Republique Française,* containing reports of laws, Bills, Parliamentary debates, &c. January 1st to October 31st, 1893.

II.—Departmental Statistics and Publications.

71-2. Statistique Générale de la France, 1888-91.

73. Annuaire Statistique, 1891.

74. Annuaire Statistique de la Ville de Paris, 1890.

75-9. Bulletin du Conseil Supérieur de Statistique. Sessions 1885 to 1890.

80-81. Conseil Supérieur du Travail. Sessions 1891 and 1892.

82-3. Office du Travail. Notices et Comptes Rendus. Fascicule I. to II. 1892.

84. Statistique des Grèves survenus en France pendant les Années, 1890-1. Office du Travail, Fasc. III.

85-8. Rapports sur l'application de la loi du 19 Mai, 1874, et de la loi du 9 Septembre, 1848, pendant l'Années, 1883, 1889, 1890, 1891.

89. Annuaire des Syndicats Professionels, Ministère de Commerce et de l'Industrie, Paris, 1892.

90. Annuaire des Syndicats Agricoles, publié avec les encouragements du Ministère de l'Agriculture, Paris, 1893.

91. Le Placement des Ouvriers et Domestiques en France. Office du Travail, 1893.

92. De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage dans les Conflicts Collectifs entre Patrons et Ouvriers. Office du Travail, 1893.

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APPENDIX II.

Law of August 8, 1893, regulating stay of Foreigners in France and the Protection of National Labour.(1)

The Senate of the Chamber of Deputies have adopted, the President of the Republic promulgates the following law:—

Article 1.—Every foreigner not naturalised arriving in a commune for the purpose of carrying on a trade or entering into business must make a declaration as to residence and identity at the town hall within eight days of his arrival. For this purpose a special register of the entry of foreigners will be kept in a form to be determined by a Ministerial resolution.

An extract of this register shall be delivered to the declarer in the ordinary form of civil certificates providing similar rights.

In case of passing to another commune the foreigner's certificate must be registered (*visé*) at the town hall of the new place of residence.

Article 2.—Every person who knowingly employs a foreigner unprovided with a certificate shall be liable to penalties of the police courts (*de simple police*).

Article 3.—The foreigner who has not made his declaration within the time appointed or who refuses to produce his certificate on the first demand shall be liable to a fine of 50 to 200 francs.

Any one who has knowingly made a false or inaccurate declaration shall be liable to a fine of 100 to 300 francs, and to temporary or indefinite exclusion from French territory.

The expelled foreigner who re-enters French territory without authorisation of Government shall be sentenced to imprisonment for six months, and shall be conducted to the frontier at the expiration of the sentence.

Article 463 of the Penal Code is applicable to the case provided by this law.

Article 4.—The fines levied under the present law shall be attached to the municipal fund of the commune in which they are levied.

Article 5.—Foreigners aimed at (*visés*) by Article 1, actually in France, are allowed one month in which to conform to the prescriptions of the law.

The present law, deliberated and adopted by the Senate, shall be carried out as a law of the State.

Given at Fontainebleau, August 8, 1893.

Carnot,
President of the Republic.

The President of the Council and
Minister of the Interior.
Ch. Dupuy.

Guardian of the Seals and
Minister of Justice,
E. Guérin.

(1) Journal Officiel, August 1893.

APPENDIX III.

LAW of MARCH 21st, 1884, relating to TRADE SYNDICATES.(1)

ARTICLE I.—The law of June 14th-27th, 1791, and Article 416 of the Penal Code are repealed.(2)

Articles 291, 292, 293 and 294 of the Penal Code and the Law of April 18th, 1834, are not applicable to trade syndicates.(3)

ARTICLE II.—Syndicates or trade associations, even those composed of more than 20 members of the same profession or of similar professions connected therewith for the supply of special products, may be formed freely and without the authorisation of the Government

ARTICLE III.—The exclusive object of trade syndicates is the consideration and defence of the economical, industrial, commercial and agricultural interests.

ARTICLE IV.—The founders of any trade syndicate shall register its articles of association and a list of the names of those who, in whatever capacity, shall be entrusted with its administration or direction. The articles shall be registered at the town hall (*mairie*) of the locality where the syndicate is formed, and at Paris at the Prefecture of the Seine.

Registration shall be renewed whenever changes are made in the direction or in the articles of association.(4)

The articles of association shall be communicated by the Mayor or by the Prefect of the Seine to the Attorney-General of the Republic.

Members of every trade syndicate entrusted with the administration or direction of such syndicate must be French citizens in the enjoyment of their civil rights.

ARTICLE V.—Trade syndicates regularly constituted in accordance with the provisions of the present law may meet freely for the consideration and defence of their economical, industrial, commercial and agricultural interests.

In accordance with the second paragraph of Article IV., the names of the syndicates of which the meetings are composed shall be published.

They cannot possess real property, nor can they appear in courts of justice.

ARTICLE VI.—Trade syndicates of masters or workmen may take legal proceedings.

They may make use of the funds derived from subscriptions.

Nevertheless, they cannot acquire real estate other than such as shall be required for their meetings, libraries and class rooms for technical instruction.

They may, without authorisation, while observing the other provisions of this law, constitute among their members special funds to be applied for mutual aid and pensions.(5)

They shall be at liberty to open and to carry on the management of registry offices for the supply of and demand for labour.

They may be consulted upon all differences and questions connected with the special objects of the syndicate.

In all cases of contention or dispute the advice of the syndicate may be afforded to the parties, who may take note thereof and make copies.

ARTICLE VII.—Every member of a trade syndicate may resign at any time notwithstanding any regulations to the contrary, but without prejudice to the right of the syndicate to claim his subscription for the current year.

All those who resign membership of a syndicate retain their right to be members of mutual aid societies or societies for providing retiring pensions on account of age towards the funds of which they have contributed by subscription or donation.

ARTICLE VIII.—When property has been acquired in a manner contrary to the provisions of Article VI., the nullity of the purchase or of the donation may be claimed either by the Procurator of the Republic or by the parties interested.

In the case of purchase burdened with certain conditions, the property shall be sold and the produce of the sale paid into the funds of the association.

In cases of donation the property shall revert to the donors, their heirs or administrators.

ARTICLE IX.—Proceedings in cases of infringement of the provisions contained in Articles II., III., IV., V., and VI. of the present law may be taken against the directors or administrators of syndicates, who may be punished by a fine of 16 francs to 100 francs. The courts may also, at the instance of the Procurator of the Republic, order the syndicate to be dissolved, and cancel the purchase of property effected contrary to the provisions of Article VI.

In cases of false declaration relative to the articles of association and the names or qualities of the administrators or directors the fine may be increased to 500 francs.

ARTICLE X.—The present law is applicable in Algeria and in the colonies of Martinique, Guadeloupe and Réunion.

Foreign workmen and those employed as immigrants cannot be members of syndicates.

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(1) *See* F. O. Report, Misc. Ser., No. 258.

(2) The following are the consequences of such repeal:—
(*a.*) The fact of having concerted measures in view of preparing for a strike is no longer an offence, either as regards syndicates composed of masters, workmen, or labour contractors; or as regards workmen, labour contractors, or masters who are not members of a syndicate.
(*b.*) Fines, prohibitions, prescriptions and interdictions, inflicted or pronounced in pursuance of concerted measures, are no longer considered an attempt to prevent the free exercise of industry and labour.—(Ministerial Circular, August 25, 1884.)

(3) Penal Code, Article 291.—No association of more than 20 members, whose object is to meet every day, or on certain specified days, for religious purposes, may be formed, except with the authorisation of the Government, and under such conditions as it may please the public authorities to impose.
Article 292.—Every association of the above character formed without such authorisation, or which, after having obtained it, shall have infringed the imposed conditions, shall be dissolved.
Law of April 10, 1834, relating to associations.—Article I. The provisions of Article 291 of the Penal Code are applicable to associations of more than 20 members, even when such associations are divided into sections composed of a less number, and although they do not meet daily, or on specified days. The authorisation of the Government may be revoked at any time.

(4) This provision is not made under penalty of the acts done by the syndicate becoming void.—(Court of Paris, January 20, 1886.)
The documents to be registered shall be exempt from taxation and stamp duty.—(Decision of the Minister of Finances, July 21, 1884.)

(5) Members of trade syndicates who desire to benefit by the advantages reserved to mutual aid societies, approved or recognised, should be regulated according to the special laws in such cases.—(Circular of 5 August 5, 1884.)

APPENDIX IV.

GOVERNMENT BILL relating to the INSTITUTION and ORGANISATION of COUNCILS of EXPERTS. (CONSEILS DE PRUD'HOMMES.)(1)

SECTION I.

POWERS.

ARTICLE I.—Councils of experts are instituted for the purpose of settling by arbitration the disputes arising in matters of contracts for the hire of labour, between employers and workmen, salaried clerks and other employés.

They are also competent to consider and advise upon differences arising between workmen on labour questions. They decide, without right of appeal, upon all matters not exceeding the sum of 500 francs, and with right of appeal, upon whatever may be the amount of the claim, in cases which have failed to receive an amicable settlement.

Nevertheless, they cannot take cognizance of actions for damages brought on account of accidents to employés, workmen or apprentices.

Moreover, they exercise the powers conferred on them by virtue of special legislation.

ARTICLE II.—Councils of experts are instituted by decrees issued in the form of regulations of public administration, according to opinions given by chambers of commerce, or consulting chambers of arts and manufactures, in places where the importance of the trade indicates the necessity.

The institution of councils of experts is lawful when the request has been made by the municipal council of the district where it is intended to be established, accompanied by the recommendation of the general council of the department, and that of the municipal councils of the districts included in the proposed quarter.

ARTICLE III.—The decree of institution shall decide the qualifications of the council, the number of categories among which are classed the trades and professions submitted to its jurisdiction, and the number of councillors told off for each category in such manner that the total number of the members of the council shall be equal, and not less than 16.

ARTICLE IV.—The councillors are elected for a term of six years. They are to be re-elected, one-half at a time, every three years, but they remain in office until their successors are elected.

ARTICLE V.—The following are workmen electors:—

1. Workmen, assistants, clerks, travellers, accountants, foremen, messengers, handymen and porters, labourers, workmen and clerks employed by transport agencies, and generally all salaried employés engaged in every kind of commerce, trade, and agriculture, on the condition of being entered on the roll of political electors.
2. Women who are French citizens, of the full age of 21 years and upwards, employed in one of the occupations comprised in the foregoing paragraph, and who have not incurred any of the penalties threatened by Articles 15 of the Decree of February 2, 1852.

The following are master electors:—

1. Masters who employ in their business one or more workmen or clerks, foremen, partners in companies, managers or directors invested with powers over a factory, manufacture, banking, or commercial establishment, workshop, and, generally speaking, any kind of business; directors and engineers of transport agencies, concessionnaires, and those who carry on mining operations, members of boards of directors, engineers of works, and heads of departments, and directors of mining operations, inspectors and managers of mines, on the condition of being entered on the roll of political electors.
2. Women who are French citizens, of the full age of 21 years and upwards, personally engaged in one of the occupations mentioned in the foregoing paragraph, and who have not incurred any of the penalties provided by Article 15 of the Decree of February 2, 1852.

On the list of electors for councils of experts are also entered the former members of one of the two categories above-mentioned who have retired from their occupation or trade for less than 10 years, and who have not incurred any of the penalties provided by Article 15 of the Decree of February 2, 1852.

Women who are called upon to elect councillors must furnish proof of residence, during six months at least, in the district of the council at the time the electoral lists are drawn up.

ARTICLE VI.—Men of 25 years of age, able to read and write, are eligible as electors.

ARTICLE VII.—Councils of experts are composed of an equal number of each class of workmen and employers. There shall be at least two employers and two workmen of each class.

ARTICLE VIII.—The workmen are elected by workmen, and employers by employers, at two distinct meetings, each to be presided over by the justice of the peace or his deputy. In cases where several polling places are opened for the facility of voting, the prefect may appoint, by decree to that effect, a mayor, or deputy mayor, to preside at one or more of such polling places.

ARTICLE IX.—The elections take place by *scrutin de liste* (balloting by a list of persons), and according to the category to which the respective electors belong. On the first ballot an absolute majority of the votes given is necessary. On the second ballot the relative majority will be sufficient. In case of an equal number of votes on the second ballot the elder candidate is declared to be elected.

ARTICLE X.—Every year, during the 15 days following the revision of the electoral lists, the mayor of each district of the province, assisted by two electors, one workman, and one employer, shall enter, on two different lists, the names and occupations of the workmen and employers who are electors. These two lists are sent to the prefect, who draws up and publishes by decree the list of each class of electors.

ARTICLE XI.—By the method of triennial renewal, half the number of councillors, workmen, or employers of each class shall retire.

In each of these classes the names of the councillors who are to be replaced the first time shall be drawn for.

Retiring councillors are re-eligible.

ARTICLE XII.—When elections are to take place the prefect gives at least 20 days' notice to the electors, and informs them of the date and place of meeting, and the hours for opening and closing the poll. The elections are to be held on a Sunday or holiday. The second ballot shall be made one week after the first.

ARTICLE XIII.—The lists are kept at the office of the secretary of the council of experts, and shall be communicated to anyone who asks for them, or who may wish to make a copy thereof.

The lists may be challenged during 15 days following the date on which they were deposited in the secretary's office. Such challenge is notified to the justice of the peace for the district, inquired into, and decided upon in accordance with Articles 5 and 6 of the Law of December 8, 1883, on consular elections.

Rectifications are to be made by virtue of the provisions of Article 7 of the said Law.

The regulations established by Articles 13, 18 to 25, and 26, paragraphs 1, 3. 27 to 29 of the law of April 5, 1884, on municipal elections, apply to electoral operations respecting councils of prud'hommes.

(1) *See* F. O. Report, Misc. Ser. No. 258.

During the three days succeeding the reception of the official report of the elections the prefect transmits certified copies of the same to the procurator-general and to the secretary of the council of experts. Protestations against the elections are made, inquired into, and decided upon in the manner prescribed by Article 11, paragraphs 5, 6 and 7, and Article 12 of the Law of December 8, 1883.

ARTICLE XIV.—During the 15 days succeeding the election, or, in case of dispute, during the 15 days succeeding the final decision thereon, the prefect shall instal the councillors who have been elected.

At the time of their installation the councillors shall each take, before the prefect the following oath:—"I swear to fulfil my duties with zeal and integrity."

ARTICLE XV.—In case one or more vacancies occur in the council from death, resignation, cancelling of the first elections, changes of conditions or otherwise, complementary elections shall take place within one month from the date of the occurrence necessitating the same, unless not more than three months have to elapse between such occurrence and the date of the next triennial renewal.

Every member elected under these conditions only remains in office during the remainder of the term for which his predecessor was elected.

ARTICLE XVI.—Should necessity arise for complementary elections, either on account of the original elections not having produced satisfactory results for the formation or completion of the council, or on account of the refusal by one or more councillors to accept office, or because of their resignation, or from their having ceased to be in office by the application of Article XLI., and should one of these circumstances arise, the vacancy thus occurring shall not be filled up until the next triennial renewal, but the council shall continue to act, whatever may be the class of members regularly elected or duly exercising their authority, provided that their number equals at least one-half of the total number of which it is composed.

The same rule applies in cases where one or more elections have been annulled on account of the ineligibility of those elected.

ARTICLE XVII.—The council assembled in general meeting, and presided over by its senior member, elects among its number, by ballot, and on the absolute majority of the members present, a president and vice-president.

If two ballotings show that neither of the candidates has obtained an absolute majority of votes of the members present, and if at the third ballot there should be an equal number of votes for each candidate, the councillor who has been for the longest period in office shall be elected. If both the candidates have served for one and the same period of time, the preference shall be given to the senior in age.

The same rule applies with regard to the formation of a new council.

ARTICLE XVIII.—When the president has been chosen from among the workmen, the vice-president can only be chosen from among the employers, and *vice versâ*.

By exception, in the case provided for by Article XVI. the president and vice-president may both be chosen among workmen or employers, should the council happen to be composed of one only of these classes, masters or men.

Objections to the election of members of the committee are submitted to the Court of Appeal.

ARTICLE XIX.—The president and vice-president are elected for a term of one year. They are re-eligible.

They remain in office until their successors are appointed.

ARTICLE XX.—Councils of experts comprise:—

1. A committee of conciliation.
2. A committee of judgment.

ARTICLE XXI.—The committee of conciliation is composed of two councillors, one workman and one employer. The presidency belongs alternately to one and the other, according to the rotation provided for by the special regulations of each council. Lots are drawn to decide which of them shall take the chair.

By exception, and in the cases provided for by Article XVI., both members of the committee may be chosen from among workmen or employers if the council happens to be composed of one class only.

ARTICLE XXII.—Meetings of the committee of conciliation are held once a week; they are not public.

ARTICLE XXIII.—The committee of judgment is composed (not including the president or vice-president) of an equal number of employers and workmen. There must be, at least, two of each class.

By exception in the cases provided for by Article XVI. the committee of judgment may validly deliberate if composed of an uneven number, five, at least, being present, even though the respective numbers of workmen and employers present may not be equal one to the other.

The decisions of the committee of judgment are determined by an absolute majority of the members present.

The sittings of the committee of judgment are public. Should the discussion be of such a nature as to give rise to scandal, the president may order the doors to be closed after having referred to the opinion of the committee.

The judgment must always be pronounced publicly.

ARTICLE XXIV.—A secretary shall be appointed, at a general meeting, for each council, on the absolute majority of votes of the members present.

He may be dismissed at any time, but in such case the resolution to that effect must be signed by two-thirds of the councillors.

The secretary is present at, and writes the minutes of the proceedings of the committees of conciliation and judgment.

SECTION II.

OF PROCEDURE BEFORE COUNCILS OF EXPERTS.

ARTICLE XXV.—Every one who comes within the jurisdiction of, and is called before, the council of experts, is bound, on an ordinary notice from the secretary, sent through the post and registered, to present himself in person on the day and hour fixed.

He cannot name anyone to represent him before the committee of arbitration except in case of his absence from home or sickness. Under these circumstances only he may be represented by a relation or someone of the same trade as himself, and, like himself, a workman or employer, who shall produce the secretary's notice countersigned by the party to whom it is addressed.

The latter's signature must be legalised in the usual manner.

Heads of industrial establishments may be represented by their managers or by an employé duly empowered to that effect.

The parties cannot give notice of their defence.

ARTICLE XXVI.—The notice must specify the day, month, and year, the name and profession of the applicant, a summary state of the case, and the day and hour of appearance.

It may be sent by the applicant to the defendant's domicile, or transmitted through the post by the care of the secretary.

ARTICLE XXVII.—Parties may at all times voluntarily present themselves before the committee of conciliation, and in such case the matter is proceeded with as if a formal application had been previously made by them.

If on the day named in the secretary's notice the applicant fails to appear, the case is struck off the list, but it may come in again after a week's interval.

ARTICLE XXVIII.—If the defendant does not appear or if an understanding cannot be come to, the case is adjourned to the next meeting of the committee of judgment. The secretary gives notice to the parties by registered letter.

ARTICLE XXIX.—On the day appointed by such notice the parties must appear in person before the committee of judgment.

In cases of sickness, or absence they may be represented in the manner prescribed by Article XXV.

Should either of the parties fail to appear judgment is given by default.

ARTICLE XXX.—Judgments of councils of experts are final and without appeal when the amount claimed does not exceed the principal sum of 500 francs.

ARTICLE XXXI.—If the claim exceeds 500 francs, appeal may be made to the civil tribunal against the

decisions of the council of experts. The appeal to the civil tribunal shall be inquired into and decided upon, as in commercial cases, without the assistance of a solicitor (*avoué*) being obligatory.

Documents relating to procedure must be engrossed in stamp, and the cost of registration placed to the debit.

The civil tribunal shall deliver judgment within three months of the date of lodging the appeal.

ARTICLE XXXII.—Judgments rendered by councils of experts can be contested by suing under a writ for overstepping of due power. The appeal must be lodged at latest within three months of the date of notice of judgment by a declaration lodged at the registry of the tribunal, and notified within the week under pain of the case falling through.

Within a fortnight of the notification the documents must be sent to the Court of Cassation. No sum shall be paid into Court, nor shall the assistance of counsel be obligatory.

The Court of Cassation shall deliver judgment within a month of the reception of the documents.

ARTICLE XXXIII.—In cases of absence, hindrance or refusal of the husband's authorisation, the council may allow a married woman to apply for conciliation and to appear as applicant or defendant before it.

ARTICLE XXXIV.—Minors who cannot be assisted by their father or guardian are provided by the council with a guardian *ad hoc* chosen among its members, who shall perform under such special circumstances the duties of a guardian.

ARTICLE XXXV.—The members of a council of experts can be challenged:—

(1.) When they have a personal interest in the matter at issue.

(2.) When they are relatives by blood or marriage of one of the parties up to the degree of cousin-german inclusively.

(3.) If in the year preceding the challenge criminal proceedings have been taken between them and one of the parties or his or her wife or husband or relatives or allies in line direct.

(4.) If a civil action be pending between them and one of the parties or the wife or husband of either of them.

(5.) If they have given a written opinion in the matter.

(6.) If they are the employers of workmen of one of the parties in the case.

The party who desires to challenge a councillor is bound to make the challenge and explain its motives by means of a declaration bearing his signature, and delivered by him to the secretary of the council, for which a receipt shall be given to him.

ARTICLE XXXVI.—The duties of councillors are absolutely gratuitous with regard to the parties. The councillors cannot claim any fee for any of the duties performed by them.

ARTICLE XXXVII.—All documents judgments, and acts required for the execution thereof must be engrossed on paper stamped according to Article 70 of the Law of 22 Frimaire, An VII., and the cost of registration placed to the debit.

Mention of the registration is stamped on the original document at the time.

The foregoing provisions are applicable to cases carried to appeal or before the Court of Cassation.

The party non-suited is condemned in cost payable to the Treasury.

ARTICLE XXXVIII.—The competency of councils of experts is fixed, as regards work done in factories, in the locality where the factory is situate, and as regards work done at home, in the place where the engagement was contracted.

ARTICLE XXXIX.—In urgent cases councils of experts can order such measures to be taken as to them may seem requisite in order to prevent any goods or objects in respect of which the application has been made, from being seized, removed, or damaged.

ARTICLE XL.—Articles 5, 7, 10 to 15, 18 to 22, 28 to 29, 31 to 43, 46, 47, 54, 55, 452 to 460, 474 and 480 of the Code of Civil Procedure, Articles, 7, 8, 11, 12, and 13 of the Law of May 25th, 1838 are applicable to the jurisdiction of councillors in all that is not contrary to the provisions of the present law.

SECTION III.

REGULATIONS OF COUNCILS OF EXPERTS.

ARTICLE XLI.—Every member of a council of experts who, without legitimate reason, and after having been duly notified, shall refuse to render the service he is called upon to perform, shall be dismissed from the council.

ARTICLE XLII.—The president specifies the refusal to serve in an official report containing the decision of the committee after the councillor has been previously heard upon the matter or duly summoned to appear.

If the council does not give an opinion within one month of the date of convocation, the president shall mention this omission in the official report sent by him to the prefect.

ARTICLE XLIII.—On the receipt of the official report the dismissal is decreed by the prefect whether the council has deliberated or not.

In case of dispute the Minister of Commerce and Industry finally decides the point with right of appeal to the Council of State on the ground of *ultra vires*.

ARTICLE XLIV.—Every member of a council of experts who shall have seriously neglected his duties in the exercise of his office, shall be called before the council to explain the act with which he is charged.

If the council does not express its opinion within one month of the date of convocation, mention shall be made in the official report addressed by the presidents to the prefect.

ARTICLE XLV.—The official report is transmitted by the prefect together with his opinion thereon, to the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

The following penalties may be pronounced:—

(1.) Censure.

(2.) Suspension for a period not exceeding six months.

(3.) Forfeiture of his office.

ARTICLE XLVI.—Censure and suspension may be pronounced by means of notice given by the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

Forfeiture is pronounced by ministerial decree.

ARTICLE XLVII.—Every councillor duly elected, who declines to be installed, or who has retired by virtue of Article XLI., cannot be re-elected before the expiration of three years from the date of the prefectoral decree.

ARTICLE XLVIII.—Every councillor against whom forfeiture has been pronounced cannot be re-elected for the same duties during six years from the date of the decree of forfeiture.

ARTICLE XLIX.—In case of a charge of prevarication against members of the council of experts, proceedings against them shall be taken in the form prescribed with respect to judges by Article 483 of the Code of Criminal Inquiry.

ARTICLE L.—Articles 4 and 5 of the Civil Code, Articles 505 to 507 of the Code of Civil procedure, and Articles 126 and 185 of the Penal Code are applicable to members of a council of experts.

ARTICLE LI.—Councils of experts may be dissolved by decree delivered on the initiative of the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

In such case the general elections shall take place within one month from the date of the decree of dissolution.

Councils of experts may also be suppressed by decree delivered according to the regulations of public administration.

SECTION IV.

GENERAL PROVISIONS.

ARTICLE LII.—Every council of experts shall prepare in general meeting regulations for its own management.

These regulations only become valid after they have been approved by the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

ARTICLE LIII.—Councils of experts assemble in general meeting whenever the request is made by the superior authority, by one-half their number plus one of the members in active service, or when the president considers it to be necessary.

The official report of each meeting is transmitted within a fortnight by the president to the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

ARTICLE LIV.—Members of councils of experts wear, while on duty, either during the sittings or elsewhere, the distinctive badge, specified by the Order of November 12, 1828.

ARTICLE LV.—Secretaries to councils of experts are remunerated at the following rates:—

For each notice to appear before the council (not including postage), 15 centimes.

For each page of certified copy, documents delivered by them containing 20 lines on each page, and 12 syllables in each line, 40 centimes.

For the certified copy, if required by the party, of the official report stating that the parties could not agree, and which shall mention summarily that they could not come to terms, 80 centimes.

For the notice by registered letter, 60 centimes.

The cost of paper, account books, and prepayments shall be paid by the secretary.

The secretary shall receive direct from the parties the fees allowed, including those for certified copies delivered by him.

ARTICLE LVI.—In case the services of process-servers be required, they shall receive for notifying a judgment 1 franc 75 centimes.

If, at a distance of half a myriametre (10 kiloms.) between their office and the place where the judgment has to be notified, they shall receive 2 francs per myriametre there and back.

For copies of documents which may be supplied with the copy of judgment they shall receive for each page of certified copy of 20 lines to the page, and 12 syllables to the line, 20 centimes.

ARTICLE LVII.—Witnesses giving evidence, who ask for it, are allowed by the council of experts 3 francs, as compensation for loss of time.

Witnesses who reside out of the district at a distance of more than two-and-a-half myriametres and less than five myriametres are allowed six francs for every myriametre or fraction thereof; beyond five myriametres they receive six francs for every five myriametres or fractions of that distance.

ARTICLE LVIII.—Every secretary or *huissier* (process server or usher) employed by the councils of experts proved to have charged a higher rate than that allowed them is punished for extortion.

SECTION V.

EXPENSES OF COUNCILS OF EXPERTS.

ARTICLE LIX.—The premises required by councils of experts are to be provided by the town where the council is established.

ARTICLE LX.—The charges obligatory upon the districts comprised in the jurisdiction of a council of experts are the following:—

(1.) Expenses of founding the council.
(2.) Purchase of badges.
(3.) Fuel, &c.
(4.) Lighting and petty expenses.
(5.) Costs of elections.

ARTICLE LXI.—The president of each council of experts shall, during the month of December each year, submit for the approval of the prefect of the department the accounts of expenditure set forth in the preceding Article.

SECTION VI.

COUNCILS OF EXPERTS IN ALGERIA AND COLONIES.

ARTICLE LXII.—The provisions of the present law are applicable with the following modifications in Algeria:—

ARTICLE LXIII.—Electors of 25 years of age able to read and write in the French language are eligible.

ARTICLE LXIV.—In districts where the importance of the Mussulman population demands it, councils of experts shall include Mussulman assessors, mention of which shall be set forth in the articles of establishment.

The Mussulman assessors, employers and workmen alike, shall always be of an equal number in each class.

ARTICLE LXV.—In every instance where one or more Mussulmans not enjoying the rights of French citizens appear, the committees of conciliation and judgment shall include two Mussulman assessors, one employer, and one workman, with right to speak but not to vote.

ARTICLE LXVI.—Mussulman councillor-assessors are elected by Mussulmans not enjoying the rights of French citizens who are inscribed on the municipal electoral lists and fulfilling the conditions provided in Article V. of the present Law.

The list of electors is drawn up separately.

ARTICLE LXVII. — Mussulman councillor-assessors are elected in the same manner as other councillors. They are subjected to the same conditions of eligibility; but as far as relates to assessorship, it is enough for the candidates to be able to speak the French language if they are able to read and write in their native tongue.

They cannot be members of committee, but they take part in its nomination in the same manner as the other members.

ARTICLE LXVIII.—Interpreters may be attached to councils of experts in Algeria; they shall be appointed in the same manner as secretaries, but they must take the professional oath before commencing their duties.

Their salary is fixed by decision of the prefect.

ARTICLE LXIX. — Mussulman councillor-assessors are to be renewed by half their number every three years as provided by Article XI.

ARTICLE LXX.—The present law is applicable to the colonies of Guadeloupe, Martinique, and Réunion.

SECTION VII.

SPECIAL PROVISIONS.

ARTICLE LXXI.—Repeal is made:—

(1.) Articles 1 to 9, 29 and following of the law of March 18, 1806.
(2.) The Decree of June 11, 1809.
(3.) The Decree of August 3, 1810.
(4.) The Laws of June 27, and May 6, 1848.
(5.) The Law of August 7, 1850.
(6.) The Law of June 1, 1853.
(7.) Article XV. of the Law of June 22, 1854.
(8.) The Law of June 4, 1864.
(9.) The Law of February 7, 1880.
(10.) The Law of February 23, 1881.
(11.) The Law of November 10, 1884.
(12.) The Law of December 10, 1884.

And generally of all provisions contrary to the present law.

SECTION VIII.

TEMPORARY PROVISIONS.

ARTICLE LXXII.—Within six months of the promulgation of the present law general elections for all members of all councils of experts shall be held.

(Signed) CARNOT,
President of the French Republic.
(Signed) JULES ROCHE,
Minister of Commerce and Industry.
(Signed) L. RICARD,
Chancellor Minister of Justice and Public Worship.

APPENDIX V.

LAW providing for CONCILIATION and ARBITRATION in cases of COLLECTIVE DISPUTES between EMPLOYERS and EMPLOYED (DECEMBER 27, 1892).

The Senate and the Chamber of Deputies have adopted, the President of the Republic promulgates the following law:—

ARTICLE 1.—Employers, workmen or employés, between whom a dispute of a collective character relating to conditions of employment has arisen, may submit the questions which divide them to a committee of conciliation, or, in default of an agreement of this committee, to a council of arbitration, and these shall be constituted in the following manner:

ARTICLE 2.—The employers, workmen or employés may, together or separately, in person or by proxy, address a declaration in writing to the justice of the peace (*juge de paix*) of the canton or one of the cantons in which the dispute has arisen, which shall contain—

(1.) The names, capacities, and domiciles of the applicants or their proxies.
(2.) The matter of dispute with a succinct account of the motives pleaded by the other side (*partie*).
(3.) The names, capacities, and domiciles of the persons to whom the proposal of conciliation or arbitration should be notified;
(4.) The names, capacities, and domiciles of the delegates chosen from amongst those concerned by the applicants, in order to assist or represent them; the number of these delegates not exceeding five.

ARTICLE 3.—The justice of the peace delivers acknowledgment of the receipt of this declaration with indication of the date and hour of its deposit, within twenty-four hours, to the opposing party or its representatives, by letter, or, if need be, by notices posted on the gates of the courts of justice of the canton, and on those of the mayoralty of the commune in which the dispute has arisen.

ARTICLE 4.—On receipt of this notification, or within three days, those concerned must send their reply to the justice of the peace. This period having passed, their silence is taken as a refusal.

If they accept, they give in their reply the names, capacities, and domiciles of the delegates chosen to assist or represent them, the number of these latter not exceeding five.

If the departure or absence of the persons to whom the proposal is notified or the necessity of consulting the principals (*mandants*), partners, or an administrative council, does not permit of a reply within three days the representatives of the said persons should within the three days declare what is the delay necessary for arrangement of a reply. This declaration is transmitted by the justice of the peace to the applicants within twenty-four hours.

ARTICLE 5.—If the proposal is accepted the justice of the peace urges (*invite d'urgence*) the parties or their delegates to form among them a committee of conciliation. The meetings take place in the presence of the justice of the peace who may be appointed by the committee to preside at the debates.

ARTICLE 6.—If an agreement is arrived at as to the conditions of conciliation, the conditions are set down in a report drawn up by the justice of the peace and signed by the parties or their delegates.

ARTICLE 7.—If an agreement is not arrived at the justice of the peace invites the parties to appoint either one or more arbitrators each, or a common arbitrator.

If the arbitrators do not agree as to the solution of the dispute they may choose a new arbitrator to act as umpire.

ARTICLE 8.—If the arbitrators can neither decide on the solution of the dispute nor agree as to the new arbitrator they must declare the fact in the report, and this arbitrator will be named by the president of the civil tribunal after inspection of the report, which shall be sent to him forthwith by the justice of the peace.

ARTICLE 9.—The decision on the points at issue (*fond*) which has been arrived at, revised, and attested by the arbitrators, is sent to the justice of the peace.

ARTICLE 10.—When a strike occurs in default of initiative on the part of those concerned in it, the justice of the peace, *ex-officio* and by the means indicated in Article 3, invites the employers, workmen, or employed, or their representatives to make known to him within three days:—

(1.) The matter of dispute with a succinct account of the alleged motives:
(2.) The acceptance or refusal of conciliation and arbitration;
(3.) The names, capacities, and domiciles of the delegates chosen, where the case occurs (*le cas échéant*), by the parties, the number of the persons chosen by each side not exceeding five.

The delay of three days may be increased for the reasons and under the conditions indicated in Article 4. If the proposal is accepted it shall proceed comformably to Articles 5 and following.

ARTICLE 11.—The reports and decisions mentioned in Articles 6, 8, 9 above, are preserved in the minutes at the office of the justice of the peace, who sends a copy free of charge to each of the parties and addresses another to the Minister of Commerce and Industry through the prefect.

ARTICLE 12.—The demand for conciliation and arbitration, the refusal or failure to reply of the opposing party, the decision of the committee of conciliation or of the arbitrators notified by the justice of the peace to the mayor of each of the communes over which the dispute is spread, are made public by each of these mayors, who post them up in the place assigned to official notices.

The posting up of these decisions may be done by the parties concerned. The notices are exempted from stamp duty.

ARTICLE 13.—The premises necessary for the meetings of the committees of conciliation or councils of arbitration are provided, heated and lighted by the communes in which they meet.

The expenses arising therefrom are included among the compulsory expenses of the communes.

The outlay of the committees of conciliation and arbitration shall be fixed by a notice of the prefect of the department entered among the compulsory departmental expenses.

ARTICLE 14.—All deeds executed in carrying out the present law are exempt from stamps and registered gratis.

ARTICLE 15.—The arbitrators and the delegates nominated under the present law must be French citizens.

In professions or trades where women are employed they may be chosen as delegates on the condition that they are of French nationality.

ARTICLE 16.—The present law applies to the colonies of Guadaloupe, Martinique and the Réunion.

The present law deliberated and adopted by the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies shall be carried out as a law of the State.

Executed at Paris, December 27th, 1892.

CARNOT.

By the President of the Republic: the Minister of Commerce, of Industry and the Colonies.

JULES SIEGFRIED.

APPENDIX VI.

SUMMARY of a CIRCULAR of the 23RD JANUARY by the MINISTER FOR COMMERCE, INDUSTRY and the COLONIES addressed to the PREFECTS on the APPLICATION of the NEW LAW of CONCILIATION and ARBITRATION(1):—

The law of the 27th of December 1892, relating to conciliation and arbitration in case of disputes between masters and workmen, was passed with a view to the prevention or settlement of conflicts between capital and labour. In adopting it the legislator has desired, in the interest of the regular development of native industry, to preserve from dissension that considerable proportion of the population which lives entirely by the fruits of its daily labour, and whose interests are ever being looked to by the Government.

It is the duty of the Ministers of the Interior and Justice to send you the necessary instruction for the application of this law which invests justices of the peace with new powers (Article 2 *et seq*), and includes (Article 13) the expenses incurred in respect of sittings of the committees of conciliation and arbitration in the compulsory expenditure of the communes and departments. I believe it to be my duty, by reason of the exceptional importance of this law, to point out to you in what spirit you should recommend its application.

1. The conflicts between capital and labour result, for the greater part, from industrial expansion and development, based, not only on the progress of the arts and sciences, but also on the concentration of capital. In this new organisation of labour the workmen and the heads of industrial establishments are not on the terms of so much intimacy as in the past, their relations being much less cordial. Simple misunderstandings are apt to be readily changed into bitter and characteristically keen disputes.

Attentive observers have not failed to recognise that the best means of avoiding and overcoming the irritation arising from these differences, which in many cases spring from the most trivial causes, is to bring about more frequent meetings and wider exchanges of views between the men, who usually only fight because they lack the means of appreciating and rendering justice to their respective intentions.

Experience has everywhere justified this view, under the inspiration of which private initiative has established in England, Belgium, and America, admirable institutions of conciliation and arbitration which, putting the masters and workmen in the same factory or the same industry in permanent relations, permit them to look into and to quietly decide, as soon as they appear, their trade disputes, and finally unite the representatives of capital and labour in perfect agreement.

The law of the 27th December 1892 has the same objects in view, and for the future it points out clearly the way by which they may be obtained. This hope will not appear chimerical if it be observed that far from manifesting any desire to artificially create a current of opinion, the new law is in direct harmony with old aspirations, which were clearly evidenced during the strikes of recent years.

The tendency to substitute argument and peaceful discussion for the abrupt cessation of labour, for strikes in fact, has been observed several times in France: on the other hand, several remarkable strikes have been fortunately terminated by conciliation and arbitration; finally, nearly half of the workmen's unions, constituted in accordance with the law of 1884 have spontaneously imposed upon themselves, by their statutes, the obligation to only resort to a strike after having exhausted all the means of conciliation.

2. The law of 27th December 1892 can only be put into motion by three classes of persons: masters, workmen, or, failing them, the justices of the peace; but you will be able to contribute very materially to make it popular.

An attentive observer of all disputes which may affect public order, the first to be informed of their appearance, in daily touch with their symptoms, you are also frequently applied to by the interested parties themselves to intervene in industrial conflicts as official arbitrator, and sometimes also to bring the weight of your influence to bear on one side or other of the parties. You will therefore be better qualified than anyone to advise interested parties as to the new law, which supplies them with the means to end conflicts peaceably and promptly.

Certainly, the arbitration organised by the law of 1892 is only optional; it can be protested against or rejected quite independently; the liberty of joint action or of resorting to strikes remains entirely without any restriction. But the free procedure instituted by the law is so simple, it is so adapted to receive an almost instantaneous application in all cases, in all places, and with the least possible disarrangement; it is so considerate of all susceptibilities and interests, that you should not hesitate to recommend it on every occasion.

This procedure is suited, in fact, to the conflicts which extend to all the various branches of an industry which may be spread over several communes or confined to one district, as also to those persons who are only interested in a single workshop, a single factory, or a section of a factory; it applies equally to the differences which occur in temporary works with a temporary staff, such as certain agricultural works, and road-making; it may be offered to workmen who have already ceased labour, as well as to those who are resolved only to resort to strike after having exhausted all means of conciliation. The infringement, also, of the liberty of labour, of which certain strikers may be guilty, should not deter you from making every effort to bring the opposing parties to the consideration of the advantages of the law of the 27th December 1892.

Briefly, although your first duty may be to maintain public order and to strictly secure to all the liberty of labour, there is no case in which you may not urge the superiority of the procedure instituted by this law over all those to which hitherto resort has been had. This insistence will be all the more efficacious, as it will be made at a time nearer the origin of the conflicts, and the sooner that the system is resorted to the greater the chance of settlement. Very often hitherto the idea of arbitration has only arisen when already the minds of the disputants have been warped and hearts hardened by mutual recriminations, and arbitration has not produced in these conditions any except the most meagre results. You will resolutely repudiate the old mistakes, and consider before everything the law of the 27th December 1892 as a means to prevent the conflicts.

The workmen already know that at a time when the support of public opinion is indispensable for the triumph of any demand whatsoever, the surest way of obtaining this support is by bringing prominently forward the reasons upon which they base their claims, and by submitting them to free discussion. You will remind them that the liberty of labour constitutes for each citizen the necessary guarantee of his independence. You will convince them that, for the future, by reason of the facilities which are granted for the discussion and settlement on neutral ground, in presence of a third disinterested party, of the disputes which may arise between them and their masters, strikes will not receive much sympathy, and the attacks on liberty of labour will be regarded as unjustifiable.

On any occasion when the violation of one or several clauses of the contract of service (*contrat de louage*) is brought under your notice, either by the masters or the workmen, you must insist on prompt recourse to the procedure of conciliation.

The Government has, moreover, the firm conviction that after a short experience the workmen will themselves recognise that the new law is adapted to save them from the long stoppages and all the miseries which must inevitably ensue. In fact, without discontinuing work, they may invoke its aid in order to ventilate their grievances, without jeopardising either their wages or the national production, the prosperity of which is of as much importance to them as to the heads of manufacturing establishments.

Proof will therefore be very soon afforded that the law of 27th December 1892 on conciliation and arbitration, in conjunction with that of the 21st March 1884, on trade unions, gives facilities to workmen for satisfying, without trouble or violence, all their legitimate aspirations.

On their side, the masters, concious of their own interests, will certainly manifest a disposition to accept the new procedure. You will not fail on every occasion that presents itself to influence them in that direction.

The Minister of Commerce, Industry, and the Colonies.

(Signed) JULES SIEGFRIED.

(1) The law on arbitration and conciliation is supplemented by a second Ministerial circular addressed by the Keeper of the Seals to the Attorneys-General. An account of this will be found in the text of the Report at p. 52.

APPENDIX VII.

Law of November 2nd, 1892, regulating the Work of Children, Young Girls, and Women in Industrial Establishments.

The Senate and the Chamber of Deputies have adopted, the President of the Republic promulgates the following law :—

Section I.

General Provisions, Age of Admission, Duration of Work.

Article 1.—The work of children, young girls, and women in the works, factories, mines, minières and quarries, timber or stone yards, workshops and their dependencies, of whatever kind, public or private, secular or religious, even when these institutions are for the purpose of technical instruction or for charity, is subject to limitations determined by the present law. All the provisions of the present law are to be applied to foreigners working in the establishments above mentioned.

Those works are excepted which are carried on in establishments where only the members of one family are employed, under the authority of either the father, or the mother, or the guardian. Nevertheless, if the work is done by means of steam or motive power, or if the trade practised is classed among dangerous or unhealthy establishments, the inspector shall have the right to prescribe measures for security and health in accordance with Articles 12, 13, and 14.

Article 2. — Children cannot be employed by masters, nor be admitted into the establishments enumerated in Article 1, before they have completed their thirteenth year. However, children provided with the certificate for primary studies, ordained by the law of March 28th, 1892, can be employed from the age of 12 years. No child under 13 years can be admitted to work in the establishments above described, if he is not provided with a certificate of physical fitness given gratuitously, either by one of the doctors appointed to superintend the young children, or by one of the medical inspectors of schools, chosen by the prefect. This examination shall be in presence of both parties (*sera contradictoire*) if the parents demand it.

The inspectors of labour shall always be able to demand a medical examination of all children under 16 already admitted into the establishments above described, with a view to ascertain if the work on which they are employed exceeds their strength. In this case, the inspectors shall have the right to exact their discharge from the establishments with the assenting opinion of one of the doctors indicated in paragraph 3 of the present Article, and after examination in the presence of both parties, if the parents demand it.

In the orphan asylums and charitable institutions described in Article 1, where primary instruction is given, the manual or technical instruction shall not exceed three hours a day for children under 13, except for children 12 years old supplied with a certificate for primary studies.

Article 3.—Children of either sex under 16 may not be employed in actual work for more than 10 hours a day. Young workmen or workwomen from 16 to 18 may not be employed in actual work for more than 60 hours a week, while the daily work may not exceed 12 hours. Girls under 18 and women may not be employed in actual work for more than 11 hours a day.

The hours of work above indicated shall be interrupted by one or more pauses, during which work shall be suspended, and the whole amount of which shall not be less than one hour.

Section II.

Night Work, Weekly Rest.

Article 4.—Children under 18 years, girls under 21, and women cannot be employed in any night work in establishments enumerated in Article 1.

All work between the hours of 9 p.m. and 5 p.m. is considered as night work; work, however, will be permitted from 4 a.m. to 10 p.m., when shared between two relays of workers working for not more than 9 hours each.

The work of each gang shall be interrupted by a rest of at least one hour.

The power of prolonging the work until 11 p.m. at certain times in the year, not exceeding 60 days at a time, shall be allowed for women and girls over 18, in certain industries to be hereinafter determined by public administrative orders, and under conditions of employment to be precisely stated in the said orders. In any case the actual day's work cannot be prolonged beyond 12 hours.

The power of permanently altering the provisions in paragraphs 1 and 2 of the present Article shall be allowed in certain industries, to be determined by an administrative order, while the work shall in no case exceed 7 hours in the 24. The same order may authorise a temporary relaxation of the aforesaid rules in certain industries. Further, in case of a stoppage by an accidental or an inevitable interruption (*force majeure*), the above prohibition can be temporarily altered for a fixed period in any industry whatsoever.

Article 5.—Children under 18 and women of any age cannot be employed in the establishments enumerated in the first Article for more than six days a week, nor on holidays recognised by law, even for putting the workshop in order. A placard put up in the workshops shall state the day set apart for the weekly rest.

Article 6.—Nevertheless, in the works with furnaces in constant activity, the women above 21 and boys can be employed every day of the week in the night for necessary work, on the condition that they have at least one day of rest in the week.

Those branches of industry in which this night work is allowed, and the lapse of time during which they can be carried on shall be determined by an administrative order.

Article 7.—The enforcement of the weekly rest and restrictions relating to the continuance of work can be temporarily suspended by the inspector of the division, for workers given in Article 5, for certain industries, to be indicated by the aforesaid administrative order.

Article 8.—Children of both sexes under 13 years of age may not be employed as actors, dancers, &c., in public representations given in the theatres and café concerts. The Minister for Public Instruction and for Fine Arts at Paris, and the prefects in the departments may occasionally authorise the employment of one or more children in the theatres for the representation of certain pieces determined upon.

Section III.

Underground Works.

Article 9.—Girls and women cannot be admitted into underground works, mines, *minières*, and quarries.

The administrative orders shall determine the special conditions of work for boys from 13 to 18 years of age in underground works above described. In certain mines specially indicated by the administrative orders, as requiring by reason of their natural conditions an abatement of the ordinances of paragraph 2, Article 4, these orders may allow work by children from 4 o'clock in the morning until midnight, on the express understanding that the children shall not do more than eight hours' actual work, or be in the mines for more than ten hours out of the 24.

Section IV.

Surveillance of Children.

Article 10.—The mayors are bound to provide the father, mother, guardian, or employer gratuitously with a service book which contains both the surname and Christian name of children of both sexes under eighteen years old, the date and the place of their birth, and their home. If the child is under thirteen, the service book must mention that he is provided with a certificate for primary studies instituted by the law of the 28th of March 1882.

The managers or employers shall write on the service book the date of entry into the workshop and of leaving. They must also have a register on which shall be mentioned all the information inserted in the present Article.

ARTICLE 11.—The employers or managers and letters-out (*loueurs*) of motive power, are expected to post up in each workshop the provisions of the present law, the administrative orders relating to the carrying out of the same and specially concerning their trades, as well as the addresses and names of the inspectors of the district.

They shall also post up the time when the work is to begin and end, as well as the time and length of the rests. A duplicate of this notice shall be sent to the inspector, and another shall be left at the town hall (*mairie*).

The organisation of shifts which results in prolonging the length of the working day beyond the legal limits, is forbidden for persons protected by the present law.

In all workrooms of workshops, orphanages, charitable workshops, dependent upon religious or lay institutions, there shall be placed permanently a table indicating in legible characters, the conditions of children's work as given in Articles 2, 3, 4 and 5, and also the employment for the day, that is to say, the hours for manual work, rest, study, and for meals. This table shall be looked over by the inspector and signed by him.

A complete enumerative account of the children educated in the establishments given above showing their surnames and Christian names, the date and place of their birth, and certified as correct by the directors of these establishments, shall be delivered every third month to the inspector, and shall make mention of any alterations that may have occurred since the last account was furnished.

SECTION V.

HEALTH AND SAFETY OF WORKERS.

ARTICLE 12.—Administrative orders shall determine the different kinds of work to be forbidden for women, girls and children which are dangerous, or exceed their strength, or are injurious to morality.

ARTICLE 13.—Women, girls and children cannot be employed in unhealthy or dangerous establishments, where the worker is exposed to operations or processes prejudicial to her health, unless under special conditions determined by the administrative orders for each of these categories of workers.

ARTICLE 14.—The establishments given in the first article and their dependencies must be kept in a constant state of cleanliness and be properly lighted and ventilated. They must have every condition of safety and wholesomeness necessary to the health of the workpeople.

In every establishment containing mechanical apparatus, wheels, straps, gear or any other appliance which may be dangerous shall be separated from the workmen in such a manner that it is impossible to approach except for the purpose of directing them. The wells, trap-doors and lifts must be enclosed.

ARTICLE 15.—Every accident having caused a wound to one or more workmen, happening in one of the establishments mentioned in the first Article, shall form the subject of a statement by the employer (*chef de l'enterprise*), or failing him and in his absence, by his overseer. This declaration shall contain the name and address of the witnesses of the accident; it shall be made within forty-eight hours to the mayor of the commune, who shall draw out an official report of it in a form to be determined by an administrative order. To this declaration will be joined a doctor's certificate, produced by the master, showing the state of the wound, the probable results of the accident and the length of time in which it will be possible to know the definite result of it. An acknowledgment of the declaration and of the medical certificate shall be remitted forthwith to the sender.

Notice of the accident is given immediately by the mayor to the inspector of the division or department.

ARTICLE 16.—The masters or heads of establishments must, moreover, be attentive to the maintenance of good morals and to the observance of public decency.

SECTION VI.

INSPECTION.

ARTICLE 17.—The inspectors of labour are ordered to see to the carrying out of the present law and of the law of the 9th September 1848.

They are ordered, moreover, in concurrence with the commissaries of police, to carry out the law of December 7, 1874, relating to the protection of children employed in the itinerant trades.

Nevertheless, in everything concerning the working of mines, *minières* and quarries, the carrying out of the law is entrusted exclusively to the engineers and comptrollers of mines, who for this service are placed under the authority of the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

ARTICLE 18.—The inspectors of work are nominated by the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

This service will comprise :—

1. Divisional inspectors.
2. Departmental inspectors, male or female.

A decree, delivered in accordance with advice of the Committee of Arts and Manufactures and of the Higher Commission on Labour instituted below, shall determine the departments in which they shall create departmental inspectors. It shall fix the number, salary and circuit expenses of these inspectors. The inspectors, male and female, of the departments are placed under the authority of the divisional inspector.

The inspectors of labour must take an oath to reveal nothing of the secrets of manufactures, and, generally, the processes of working with which they will become acquainted in the exercise of their duties.

Every violation of this oath is punished comformably to Article 378 of the present Code.

ARTICLE 19.—Henceforth, only those candidates who have satisfied the conditions set forth in Article 22 will be admitted to the duties of divisional or departmental inspector. The nomination to the post of titular inspector will only be definite after the space of one year.

ARTICLE 20.—The inspectors, male or female, have right of entry into all the establishments described in the first Article; they can insist upon being shown the register prescribed by Article 10, the service books, the private rules, and if necessary the certificate for physical fitness mentioned in Article 2.

The infringements are stated in the official reports of the inspectors (male or female) which are taken as evidence (*font foi*) unless contrary proof is shown.

These official reports are drawn up with duplicates, and one is sent to the prefect of the department and the other is left at the Public Prosecutor's office.

The above orders do not interfere with the rules of Common Law relating to the ascertainment and prosecution of infringements of the present law.

The inspectors have, beyond the supervision entrusted to them, to prepare statistics on the conditions of industrial work in that district which they are appointed to supervise. A report summarising these communications will be published every year, under the care of the Minister of Commerce and of Industry.

SECTION VII.

HIGHER AND DEPARTMENTAL COMMISSIONS.

ARTICLE 22.—A Higher Commission composed of nine members, whose duties are unpaid, is established under the Minister of Commerce and of Industry. This commission includes two senators, two deputies elected by their colleagues, and five members nominated for a period of four years by the President of the Republic. It is appointed :—

1. To guard the uniform and vigilant application of the present law.
2. To give advice on regulations to be made, and, generally speaking, on the various questions respecting the workers under protection.
3. Finally to arrange the conditions for the admission of candidates to the divisional and departmental inspection, and the programme for the examination they must undergo.

The divisional inspectors appointed under the law of May 19th, 1874, and actually in office, shall be redistributed among the various posts (divisional and departmental) established under the present law without undergoing a new examination.

The inspectors of departments may be retained in their posts without undergoing a new examination.

ARTICLE 23.—Each year the President of the Higher Commission addresses to the President of the Republic a general report upon the results of the inspection, and upon the facts relating to the execution of the present law. This report must be published in the *Journal Officiel* in the same month that it is presented.

ARTICLE 24.—The General Councils must form one or more commissions charged to present reports on the execution of the law, and the improvements which may be made in it, which shall be transmitted to the Minister and communicated to the Higher Commission.

The divisional and departmental inspectors, the presidents and vice-presidents of the committee of experts (*prud'hommes*) of the chief place, or of the principal industrial centre of the department, and, if there is one, the engineer of the mines, shall *ex-officio* form part of these commissions in their respective districts. The local commissions instituted by Articles 20, 21, and 22 of the law of the 19th May, 1874, are abolished.

ARTICLE 25.—There shall be in every department employers' committees having for their object:—

1. The protection of apprentices and of children employed in the trade;
2. The development of technical instruction. The General Council in each department shall determine the number and the district of the employers' committee, of which the statutes shall be sanctioned, in the department of the Seine, by the Minister of the Interior, and the Minister of Commerce and of Industry, and by the prefects in the other departments.

The employers' committees shall be governed by a commission composed of seven members, four of whom shall be nominated by the General Council, and three by the prefect. They are renewable every three years. The members going out of office may be recalled to take part in it. Their duties are unpaid.

SECTION VIII.

PENALTIES.

ARTICLE 26.—The manufacturers, directors, or managers of establishments set forth in the present law who shall have transgressed the prescriptions of the said law, and the administrative orders relating to the carrying out of the same, shall be brought before the police courts, and shall be liable to a fine of from 5 to 15 francs. The fine shall be inflicted as often as there are persons employed under conditions contrary to the present law. Nevertheless, the penalty will not be inflicted if the infringement of the law has been the result of an error arising from the production of birth documents, service books, or certificates containing false statements or delivered by another person.

The employers (*chefs d'industrie*) shall be legally responsible (*civilement*) for the fines pronounced against their directors or managers.

ARTICLE 27.—In case of a fresh offence, the offender shall be brought before the magistrate and punished by a fine of from 16 to 100 francs.

It is to be considered a second offence when the person contravening has already undergone sentence for a like contravention in the twelve months preceding the deed under consideration. In case of several contraventions bringing in their train those penalties belonging to the second offence, the fine shall be applied as many times as new contraventions shall have been noticed. The magistrates shall be able to apply the provisions of Article 463 of the Penal Code concerning extenuating circumstances, so long as the fine in any case for each offence is not less than 5 francs.

ARTICLE 28.—The posting of the sentence, according to the circumstances and in the case of a second offence only, can be ordered by the magistrates.

The magistrate can also order in the same case the insertion in one or more journals of the department of the sentence passed, at the expense of the offender.

ARTICLE 29.—Whoever shall put any obstacle in the way of an inspector's fulfilment of his duties shall be punished by a fine of from 100 to 500 francs.

In case of a fresh offence, the fine shall be increased, and shall be from 500 to 1,000 francs.

Article 463 of the Penal Code applies to conviction.

SECTION IX.

SPECIAL PROVISIONS.

ARTICLE 30.—The administrative orders necessary for the application of the present law shall be delivered after advice from the Higher Commission on Labour, and the Consultative Committee of Arts and Manufactures. The General Council on Mines shall be called upon to give its advice on the orders provided in execution of Article 9.

ARTICLE 31.—The provisions of the present law apply to children placed as apprentices, and employed in one of the establishments set forth in the first article.

ARTICLE 32.—The provisions set out in the present law will only apply from January 1st, 1893.

The law of May 19th, 1874, and the administrative orders issued for the execution of its provisions, will be annulled on the date above given. The present law, resolved on and adopted by the Senate and by the Chamber of Deputies, shall be carried out as a law of the State.

Given at Paris, November 2, 1892.

(Signed) CARNOT,

By the President of the Republic.
The Minister of Commerce and Industry,
(Signed) JULES ROCHE.

Keeper of the Seals, Minister of Justice, and Public Worship,
(Signed) L. RICARD.

APPENDIX VIII.

DECREE of MAY 3RD, 1893, regulating the APPLICATION of the LAW of NOVEMRER 2ND, 1892, as regards the LENGTH of the Actual DAY'S LABOUR for BOYS in MINES, MINIÈRES, and QUARRIES.

The President of the Republic, with the advice of the General Council of the Mines, of the Consultative Committee of Arts and Manufactures, and of the Higher Commission of Labour, decrees:—

ARTICLE 1.—The length of the actual labour of boys under 16 in the underground galleries of mines, *minières* and quarries may not exceed eight hours (*par poste*) in the twenty-four.

The length of actual labour for young workmen of sixteen to eighteen may not exceed 10 hours a day or 54 hours a week.

These hours do not include the ascent and descent nor the time spent in going to and from the yards, nor the rests, which last may not be less than one hour.

ARTICLE 2.—Boys and young workmen may be employed in sorting the minerals, in pushing and rolling the trucks, in working the gates and ventilators, and in accessory works not exceeding their strength. They may not be employed in working the ventilators for more than half a day, with periods of rest intervening amounting to at least half-an-hour.

Young workmen of sixteen to eighteen may not be employed at miners' work except as helps or apprentices and for not more than five hours a day.

All work beyond what is mentioned in the preceding paragraphs is forbidden in the underground galleries for boys and young workmen.

ARTICLE 3.—The special provisions in Article 9, paragraph three, of the law of November 2nd, 1892, may be applied to workers of small coal strata in which the labour is carried on by double post (*double poste*) and when the labour of one of the posts consists in removal of surrounding rocks in the breaking yards and the embankment which could not be carried out during the work of extraction.

The employer who wishes to avail himself of this rule must give notice beforehand to the engineer-in-chief of mines. If the latter is opposed, the employer must apply for authorisation of the Minister of Commerce, Industry and the Colonies.

ARTICLE 4.—The Minister of Commerce, Industry and the Colonies is charged with the application of the present decree, which shall be inserted in the *Bulletin des Lois* and published in the *Journal Officiel de la Republique Française*.

Given at Paris, May 3rd, 1893.

CARNOT.

The Minister of Commerce, Industry, and the Colonies,

TERRIER.

DECREE of MAY 13TH, 1893, relating to ARTICLE 12 of the LAW regulating LABOUR of WOMEN and CHILDREN.

The President of the French republic;

On the report of the Minister of Commerce, Industry, and the Colonies;

Considering Article 12 of the law of November 2nd, 1892;

Considering the advice of the Consultative Committee of Arts and Manufactures;

Considering the advice of the Higher Commission instituted by Article 22 of the law cited;

The Council of State having concurred—

Decrees:

ARTICLE 1.—Employment of children under 18, girls under age, and women, is forbidden in oiling cleaning, or repairing of machinery or mechanical apparatus which is in motion.

ARTICLE 2.—Employment of children under 18, girls under age and women is forbidden in workshops where there are machines guided by hand or by motor power, of which the dangerous parts are not protected by wheel guards or other measures.

ARTICLE 3.—Employment of children under 18 is forbidden in the working of apparatus by treadles. Similarly their employment in working horizontal wheel gear is forbidden.

ARTICLE 4.—Children under 16 may not be employed in turning vertical wheels for more than half the day, divided by a rest of at least half-an-hour. Similarly employment of children under 16 in working those looms called "hand-looms" by means of treadles is forbidden.

ARTICLE 5.—Children under 16 may not work the circular or twisted saws (*scies circulaires, scies à ruban*).

ARTICLE 6.—Children under 16 may not be employed in working shears or other sharp-edged tools.

ARTICLE 7.—Children under 13 may not be employed in cutting or blowing glass at glassworks.

Above 13 and under 16 they may not be employed in cutting a weight of glass above 1,000 grammes.

In glass bottle and sheet-glass factories blowing by the mouth is forbidden to children under 16.

In the works where blowing is done by the mouth a separate mouthpiece (*embout personnel*) shall be set apart for every child under 18.

ARTICLE 8.—It is forbidden that children under 16 should be set to overlook steam cocks.

ARTICLE 9.—It is forbidden that children under 16 should be employed as folders in the workshops where wire rods are rolled and drawn.

However, this provision does not apply to the workshops where the work of folders is protected by guards.

ARTICLE 10.—The employment of children under 16 is forbidden in works carried out by means of winged scaffolding (*échafaudages volants*) whether for repairing or cleaning houses.

ARTICLE 11.—Young workmen and workwomen under 18 employed in industry may not carry, whether outside or inside factories, works, workshops and yards, any burdens exceeding the following:—

Boys below 14	10 kilogr.
Boys from 14 to 18	15 ,,
Girls below 16	5 ,,
Girls from 16 to 18	10 ,,

It is forbidden that the same workers should be employed in pushing or dragging, either in industrial establishments or on public roads, any loads requiring greater corresponding efforts than those just indicated. The conditions of equivalence in the two kinds of effort shall be determined by a Ministerial resolution (*Arrêté*).

ARTICLE 12.—Employment of girls under 16 in working sewing machines by treadles is forbidden.

ARTICLE 13.—Employment of children, girls and women is forbidden in preparation of writings, prints, bills, drawings, engravings, paintings, emblems, pictures or other objects, the sale, supply, exhibition, posting or distribution of which are repressed by penal laws as contrary to good morals.

Similarly the occupation of children under 16 and girls under age is forbidden in the workshops where the preparation of writings, prints, bills, &c., &c., which, without falling under the application of the said penal laws, are of a nature to injure their morals.

ARTICLE 14.—In the establishments where the processes named in Table A., annexed to the present decree are carried on, the entry into those workshops is forbidden to children under 18, girls under age, and women.(1)

ARTICLE 15.—In the establishments where the processes named in Table B. annexed to the present decree are carried on, the entry into those workshops is forbidden to children under 18.

ARTICLE 16.—The labour of children, girls under age and women is only authorised in the workshops enumerated in Table C. annexed to the present decree, under the conditions specified in the same table.

ARTICLE 17.—The Minister of Commerce, Industry and the Colonies is charged with the execution of the present decree, which shall be inserted in the *Bulletin des Lois*, and published in the *Journal Officiel de la Republique Française*.

Given at Paris, May 13th, 1893.

CARNOT.

By the President of the Republic;
The Minister of Commerce, Industry and the Colonies,

TERRIER.

DECREE of JULY 15TH, 1893, regulating LABOUR of WOMEN and GIRLS above 18.

The President of the French Republic;

On the report of the Minister of Commerce, of Industry and the Colonies;

Considering Articles 4, 5, 6 and 7 of the law of November 2nd, 1892;

Considering the advice of the Consultative Committee of Arts and Manufactures;

Considering the advice of the Higher Commission instituted by Article 22 of the law cited;

The Council of State concurring—

Decrees:

ARTICLE 1.—In the industries and at the periods hereinafter determined, women and girls above 18 years may be employed until eleven o'clock in the evening, while the hours of actual work may in no case exceed 12 in the 24:—

(1) This Table A., and the Table B. and C., mentioned in the next Articles, will be found in the *Journal Officiel* for May 14th, 1893. They are of so elaborate and detailed a character, covering almost all the industrial chemical processes, that it is impossible to reproduce them in a work of this size.

Industries.	Periods of the Year.
Upholstery, tapestry and passementerie for furniture.	December, January.
Jewelry and trinkets	December, May.
Hatmaking or trimming	February, March.
Readymade clothing and underclothing for women and children.	December April.
Readymade clothing for men	March, October.
Gilding of wood and metal for furniture.	December, January.
Artificial flowers	February, March.
Making up of furs	November, December.
Typographical printing	November 15th to December 15th, and June 15th, to July 15th.
Lithographical printing	December, January.
Making up of paper, envelopes, school copybooks, fancy stationery	November, December.
Wall-papers	March, September.
Dress plumes	August 16th to October 15th.
Binding	December, July.
Toys and fancy goods	November, December.
Dyeing, trimming, bleaching, stamping, goffering and watering of stuffs.	April, October.
Weaving of novelties in stuffs for clothing	April 15th to May 15th and October 15th to November 15th.
Nets, laces and silk breadths	February 15th to March 31.

ARTICLE 2.—Permanent exceptions to the provision in paragraphs 1 and 2 of Article 4 (night work) of the law cited may be made for women who have attained their majority (while the work may not exceed seven hours in the 24) in the following industries:—Stitching of printed matter, folding of journals, lighting of lamps for mines.

ARTICLE 3.—The industries hereinafter enumerated are authorised to make temporary exceptions to the provisions relative to night work, while the actual work of women, girls or children employed at night may not exceed ten hours in the 24:—

Industries.	Total Length of the Exceptions.
Hat making or trimming	30 days.
Readymade clothing for women and children.	,,
Confectionery	90 days.
Preserved fruits and vegetables	,,
Preserved fish	,,
Removal of wool from sheepskins	60 days.
Artificial flowers	30 days.
Making up of furs	,,
Printing (lithographic and typographic).	,,
Perfume making	90 days.
Patty making (*Pâtés alimentaires*)	30 days.
Dress plumes	,,
Urgent repairs of ships and motor machines.	120 days (children above 16.)
Coopering for barrels of fish	90 days.

ARTICLE 4.—In works where fire is continually kept up women who have attained majority and boys may be employed at night in the following occupations:—

Works.	Workers.	Branches or Occupations.
Beetroot distilleries.	Boys and women	Washing, weighing, sorting the beetroot, turning the cocks for juice and water, helping at the distilling machinery.
Enamelled iron and brass works.	Boys	Working the oven doors from a distance.
Oil-extracting works.	Boys	Filling and shaking the sacks, carrying empty sacks and screens.
Paper works	Boys and women	Helping the machinist, cutting, weighing, rolling and piling the paper.
Sugar factories and refineries.	Boys and women	As in the beetroot distilleries; also, looking after the filters, washing the apparatus and the works, working the sugar into tablets.
Metal works	Boys	Helping in the preparation of beds of fusion and a number of accessory works (*affinage, lavinage, martelage, treillage*) arrangement of bundles, sheets, tubes and wires.
Glass works	Boys	Handing the tools, helping in various processes (*soufflage moulage*) all under the conditions of Article 7 of the decree of May 13th, 1893.

When women and boys are employed through the night they must have intervals of rest amounting in all to not less than two hours.

The hours of actual work must at the same time not exceed ten.

ARTICLE 5.—Among the industries in which the compulsory weekly rest and other restrictions on duration of work applies, a certain number may be exempted from these provisions by the sectional inspector in the case of children under 18 and women of any age. They are as follows:—Open brick works; making up of hats; corset making; readymade clothing for women and children; preserved fruits, vegetables and fish; open rope yards; removal of wool from sheepskins; artificial flowers; perfume making (from flowers); making up of furs; printing, typographic and lithographic; dress plumes; urgent repairs of ships and motor apparatus; dyeing, bleaching, goffering, &c., of stuffs; weaving of novelties in stuffs for clothing.

ARTICLE 6.—Each time that an employer in the trades mentioned in Article 3 wishes to avail himself of the power given in that Article he must give notice of it 12 hours beforehand to the inspector or inspectors and to the mayor of the commune.

This notice shall announce dates for beginning and ending the departure from the ordinary custom.

A copy of the notice shall be posted up immediately in a prominent place in the factories and shall remain there during the whole period of the new departure. A copy of the authorisation shall be similarly posted up in the cases provided for by Article 5.

ARTICLE 7.—The Minister of Commerce, of Industry and the Colonies is charged with the execution of the present decree, which shall be inserted in the "Bulletin des Lois," and published in the "Journal Officiel" of the French Republic.

Executed at Paris, July 15th, 1893.

CARNOT.

By the President of the Republic;
The Minister of Commerce, Industry and the Colonies,

TERRIER.

APPENDIX IX.

LAW relating to the HEALTH and SAFETY of WORKERS in INDUSTRIAL ESTABLISHMENTS.[1] (JUNE 12, 1893.)

The Senate and Chamber of Deputies have adopted, the President of the Republic promulgates the following law:—

ARTICLE 1.—The provisions of the present law apply to manufactures, factories, works, yards, workshops of all kinds, with their outbuildings (*dépendances*).

Only those establishments are excepted in which the members of a family are employed under the authority of the father, mother, or guardian.

Nevertheless, if work is carried on in the latter by means of steam or mechanical power, or if the industry is classed among dangerous or unhealthy undertakings, the inspector shall have the right to prescribe those

(1) *Journal Officiel de la République Française*, June 13th, 1893.

measures for safety and sanitation which are provided under this law.

ARTICLE 2.—The establishments held in view (*visés*) by Article 1 must be constantly kept in a cleanly state, and maintain the hygiene and sanitary conditions necessary for the health of the workers.

They must be arranged in such a way as to secure the safety of the workers. In every establishment worked by machinery the wheels, bands, gear, or any other possible source of danger shall be separated from the workers in such a way that approach to them can only be made for the necessary purpose of directing them. Wells, traps, and openings must be covered over. Machinery, gear, tools, and engines should be fitted up and maintained in the best possible state for safety. These provisions are applicable to theatres, circuses, shops, and similar establishments where mechanical apparatus is used.

ARTICLE 3.—Administrative orders drawn up under advice of the Consultative Committee of Arts and Manufactures shall determine:—

(1.) Within three months of the promulgation of this law, the general measures for protection and safety applicable to all the establishments under it, notably in the matters of lighting, ventilating, drinking water, cesspools, steaming and sizing, precautions against fire, &c.

(2.) In accordance with ascertained needs, the detailed prescriptions relative to certain industries or modes of labour.

The Consultative Committee of Public Hygiene shall be called upon to give advice in all that concerns the general regulations provided by paragraph 2 of the present Article.

ARTICLE 4.—The inspectors of labour are charged with the execution of the present law and the orders provided for by it; they have entry into the establishments specified in Article 1 and the last paragraph of Article 2, in order that they may carry out the supervision and inquiries with which they are charged.

ARTICLE 5.—Contraventions are stated in the reports of the inspectors, which are held as evidence (*font foi*) unless proof to the contrary is given.

The reports are prepared with duplicates, one copy being sent to the prefect and the other to the office of the Public Prosecutor (*parquet*).

The foregoing provisions do not derogate from the rules of common law in regard to the statement and prosecution of infringements of the present law.

ARTICLE 6.—Nevertheless, in all that concerns the application of the administrative orders provided for by Article 3, the inspectors should summon (*mettront en demeure*) the employers to conform to the provisions of the said order before they prepare a report.

This summons (*mise en demeure*) should be made in writing in the register of the works; it should be dated and signed, should indicate the contraventions in question, and fix a date by which the contraventions should have disappeared. The date should never give less time than one month.

Within 15 days of the summons the employer may, if he thinks fit, address a demand to the Minister of Commerce and Industry. If obedience to the summons necessitates important alterations in the structure of the works, the Minister may, with the advice of the Committee of Arts and Manufactures, accord to the employer a delay which in any case should not be longer than 18 months. Notification of the decision is sent to the employer in administrative form (*dans la forme administrative*); advice of it is sent to the inspector.

ARTICLE 7.—The employers, directors, managers, or officers in charge who have contravened the provisions of the present law, and the administrative orders relative to its execution, shall be prosecuted before the police courts (*tribunal de simple police*),[1] and punished with a fine of from 5 francs to 15 francs. The fine shall be applied as many times as there are distinct contraventions stated in the reports, without, however, passing a limit of 200 francs.

The judgment shall fix, moreover, the time in which the changes for safety and sanitation imposed by the law shall be carried out. The employers are legally responsible for sentences pronounced against their directors, managers, or officers.

ARTICLE 8.—If, after a sentence is pronounced under the preceding Article, the measures for safety and health imposed by the present law or administrative orders have not been carried out within the time specified by the sentence the matter is brought in a fresh report before the magistrates (*tribunal correctionnel*).[2] After a new summons (*mise en demeure*) which remains without effect, this Court can order the establishment to be closed. The sentence is subject to appeal; the Court shall declare the matter urgent (*statuera d'urgence*).

ARTICLE 9.—In case of a fresh offence the person contravening the law shall be prosecuted before the court for misdemeanors, and punished by a fine of 50 to 500 francs, but the sum total of fines may not rise beyond 2,000 francs. There is a fresh offence when the person contravening has been subject, within the 12 months preceding the fact which is the matter for prosecution, to a first sentence for infraction of the present law or the administrative orders relative to its execution.

ARTICLE 10.—The inspectors must prepare every year circumstantial reports on the application of the present law throughout their districts. These reports should mention the accidents of which workers have been victims and their causes. They should contain proposals relative to new precautions likely to assure safety in the work. A summary report of these communications should be published every year under the care of the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

ARTICLE 11.—Every accident which has caused injury to one or more workers in the establishments mentioned in Article 1 and the last paragraph of Article 2 shall be the object of a declaration by the head of the undertaking or, in his default or in his absence, by the official in command.

This declaration shall contain the name and address of the witnesses of the accident; it shall be delivered within 48 hours to the mayor of the commune, who shall prepare a report in a form hereinafter to be determined by administrative order. To this declaration shall be appended, by the employer, a certificate indicating the condition of the injured person, the probable consequences of the accident, and the date at which it will be possible to know the definite result. Acknowledgment of the declaration and the medical certificate shall be sent forthwith to the deponent. Notice of the accident is given immediately by the mayor to the departmental inspector.

ARTICLE 12.—All those who shall have placed any obstacle in the way of accomplishment by the inspector of his duties shall be punished by a fine of 100 to 500 francs, and in case of a second offence of 500 to 1,000 francs. The provisions of the Penal Code which prevent and repress acts of resistance, outrages, or violence against officials of the law (*police judiciaire*) are applicable to those who are guilty of like offences against the inspectors.

ARTICLE 13.—Nothing is introduced in regard to surveillance of steam gear.

ARTICLE 14.—Article 463 of the Penal Code is applicable to sentences pronounced under the present law.

ARTICLE 15.—All provisions of laws and regulations contrary to the present law are abrogated.

The present law, deliberated and adopted by the Senate and Chamber of Deputies shall be executed as a law of the State.

Executed at Paris, June 12, 1893.

CARNOT.

By the President of the Republic; the Minister of Commerce and Industry and the Colonies.

TERRIER.

The Keeper of the Seals, Minister of Justice.

GUÉRIN.

(1) *See* Appendix XIX., p. 137.

(2) *Ib.*

APPENDIX X.

NUMBER, AVERAGE WAGES, and DURATION of LABOUR of the

I.—MINERAL

1. COAL AND

Names of Groups and Basins.	Names of Departments.	Nature of the Substances extracted.	Average daily Output.	Hands employed in the Mine.									
				Number					Average Number of Hours present per Day in Mine.	Average Number of Hours of actual Labour per Day.	Average daily Wages			
				Of Miners properly so-called.	Of other skilled Workmen.	Of unskilled Workmen.	Of Children from 12 to 16 Years.	Total.			Of Miners properly so-called.	Of other skilled Workmen.	Of unskilled Workmen.	Of Children.
NORD AND PAS-DE-CALAIS.			Tons.						Hrs. m.	Hrs. m.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.
Valenciennes	Nord, Pas-de-Calais.	Coal	46,623	24,059	4,451	10,148	4,349	43,007	9 25	8 8	5 30	4 41	3 62	1 86
Le Boulonnais	Pas-de-Calais	„	10	24	6	5	—	35	9 0	8 0	2 75	2 00	2 00	—
	Total and average.	—	46,633	24,083	4,457	10,153	4,349	43,042	9 4	8 8	5 30	4 41	3 62	1 86
LOIRE.														
Saint-Etienne	Loire	Coal	11,198	3,197	2,474	4,175	64	9,910	10 45	7 58	5 68	4 87	3 85	2 00
Sainte-Foy-l'Argentière.	Rhône	„	150	56	24	65	—	145	11 0	10 0	4 75	4 55	3 35	—
Communay	Isère	Anthracite	36	26	9	3	—	38	11 0	10 0	4 60	3 75	3 60	—
	Total and average.	—	11,384	3,279	2,507	4,243	64	10,093	10 45	8 0	5 66	4 86	3 54	2 00
GARD.														
Alais	Gard, Ardèche	Coal	6,546	3,410	1,023	2,920	192	7,545	11 8	8 51	5 14	4 11	3 75	2 43
Aubenas	Ardèche	Anthracite	121	73	2	93	—	168	10 28	9 0	3 89	4 50	2 85	—
Le Vigan	Gard	Coal	13	—	—	39	—	39	10 30	9 0	—	—	3 59	—
	Total and average.	—	6,680	3,483	1,025	3,052	192	7,752	11 7	8 53	5 11	4 12	3 75	2 43
BURGUNDY AND NIVERNAIS.														
Le Creusot and Blanzy.	Saône-et-Loire	Coal	4,446	2,499	696	572	266	4,033	9 23	8 13	4 70	4 45	3 44	1 98
Decize	Nièvre	„	527	341	109	226	80	756	9 0	8 0	4 16	3 70	3 10	2 40
Epinac	Saône-et-Loire	„	375	200	108	133	—	441	10 0	8 30	3 85	3 50	2 85	—
Aubigny-la-Ronce	Côte-d'Or	„	15	38	1	17	—	56	10 0	9 0	3 25	3 25	2 75	—
La Chapelle-sous-Dun.	Saône-et-Loire	„	167	56	41	59	—	156	9 0	8 0	3 80	3 50	2 50	—
Bert	Allier	„	162	119	11	70	—	200	10 0	9 0	4 57	4 10	3 00	—
Sincey	Côte d'Or	„	13	20	3	3	—	26	9 0	8 0	3 60	3 00	2 75	—
	Total and average.	—	5,708	3,273	969	1,080	346	5,668	9 24	8 14	4 55	4 22	3 20	2 08
TARN AND AVEYRON.														
Aubin	Aveyron	Coal	2,665	1,600	647	571	—	2,818	9 31	8 26	4 05	4 04	3 53	—
Carmaux	Tarn	„	1,295	567	265	497	—	1,329	8 45	7 59	5 19	5 04	3 34	—
Rodez	Aveyron	„	46	44	2	20	—	66	10 0	9 0	3 76	2 57	3 14	—
Saint-Perdoux	Lot	„	4	9	—	3	—	12	12 0	10 0	3 17	—	2 25	—
	Total and average.	—	4,010	2,220	914	1,091	—	4,225	9 17	8 18	4 36	4 33	3 44	—
BOURBONNAIS.														
Commentry	Allier	Coal	3,016	1,388	612	546	—	2,546	10 0	9 0	4 31	3 99	3 21	—
Saint-Eloy	Puy-de-Dôme	„	520	390	—	328	—	718	10 0	8 30	4 30	—	3 32	—
L'Aumance	Allier	„	118	59	13	43	—	115	9 24	8 24	3 41	3 52	2 91	—
	Total and average.	—	3,654	1,837	625	917	—	3,379	10 0	8 52	4 28	3 98	3 23	—
AUVERGNE.														
Brassac	Haute-Loire, Puy-de-Dôme.	Coal and anthracite.	848	198	260	334	—	792	9 59	7 59	4 75	4 50	4 25	—
Champagnac	Cantal	Coal	220	60	68	107	—	235	9 30	7 30	5 00	4 25	4 25	—
Langeac	Haute-Loire	„	45	13	—	27	—	40	10 0	8 0	4 50	—	3 25	—
	Total and average.	—	1,113	271	328	468	—	1,067	9 53	7 53	4 79	4 45	3 40	—
HÉRAULT.														
Graissessac	Hérault	Coal	1,018	437	168	489	28	1,122	10 3	8 49	4 97	4 90	3 62	2 10
SOUTHERN VOSGES.														
Ronchamp	Haute-Saône	Coal	760	564	74	415	—	1,053	9 0	8 0	4 88	3 38	3 07	—

APPENDIX X.

various categories of WORKMEN employed in MINES. (*Statistique Minérale*, 1889.)

Hands employed outside the Mines.									Estimated addition to daily Wages arising from Allowances of Fuel, Rent, Pensions, Aid, &c.	Average daily Wages per Head.		Average daily Wages per Head without distinction, and including the estimated Addition.	Average Number of Working Days in 1889.	Average annual Wages per Head without distinction, and including the estimated Addition.
Number				Average Number of Hours present at the Mine per Day.	Average Number of Hours of actual Labour per Day.	Average daily Wages.				In the Mine.	Above ground.			
Of Men.	Of Women.	Of Children.	Total.			Of Men.	Of Women.	Of Children.						
				Hrs. m.	Hrs. m.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.		Francs.
6,508	674	1,969	9,151	10 51	9 50	3 39	1 64	1 47	0 45	4 47	2 83	4 63	299	1,384
5	—	—	5	12 0	10 0	2 00	—	—	0 07	2 51	2 00	2 53	263	665
6,513	674	1,969	9,156	10 51	9 50	3 39	1 64	1 47	0 45	4 46	2 83	4 63	299	1,384
4,298	267	391	4,956	10 5	8 10	3 30	2 00	1 55	0 25	4 69	3 09	4 40	297	1,307
44	—	10	54	11 0	11 0	2 50	—	1 50	0 05	4 09	2 32	3 66	263	963
26	—	—	26	11 0	10 0	2 90	—	—	—	4 34	2 88	3 76	258	970
4,368	267	401	5,036	10 5	8 12	3 30	2 00	1 55	0 25	4 67	3 09	4 39	297	1,304
2,851	536	395	3,782	10 20	10 2	3 33	1 46	1 35	0 24	4 39	2 86	4 12	297	1,224
80	2	—	82	11 0	10 0	2 45	1 50	—	0 14	3 32	2 43	3 17	298	945
21	—	—	21	12 0	9 30	2 61	—	—	0 03	3 56	2 62	3 23	292	958
2,952	538	395	3,885	10 21	10 2	3 30	1 46	1 35	0 24	4 36	2 85	4 10	297	1,218
1,903	454	461	2,818	10 47	10 52	3 74	1 73	1 49	0 56	4 30	3 05	4 34	304	1,319
308	130	26	464	11 0	9 0	3 16	1 84	2 01	0 35	3 59	2 72	3 61	326	1,177
153	30	20	203	12 0	10 30	2 75	1 50	1 25	0 10	3 46	2 42	3 23	284	917
19	—	—	19	12 0	11 0	2 75	—	—	0 20	3 09	2 74	3 20	286	915
93	—	—	93	12 0	11 0	2 71	—	—	0 10	3 29	2 70	3 19	299	954
92	5	28	125	11 0	10 0	2 65	1 60	1 20	0 28	3 99	2 29	3 62	278	1,007
8	—	—	8	11 0	10 0	3 00	—	—	0 35	3 42	3 00	2 68	164	604
2,576	619	535	3,730	11 41	10 35	3 52	1 74	1 49	0 48	4 09	2 94	4 11	304	1,249
970	499	37	1,506	10 10	9 30	3 15	1 40	1 33	0 26	3 95	2 53	3 71	290	1,076
661	—	115	776	10 2	10 0	3 31	—	1 99	0 20	4 47	3 11	4 17	233	972
26	18	—	44	12 0	10 51	2 50	1 50	—	0 04	4 30	2 11	3 47	262	903
5	—	—	5	12 0	10 0	2 50	—	—	—	3 00	2 50	2 76	114	315
1,662	517	152	2,331	10 10	9 42	3 20	1 40	1 83	0 23	4 11	2 71	3 85	271	1,043
713	106	204	1,023	11 0	10 0	3 24	1 45	1 51	0 17	4 00	2 70	3 80	284	1,079
218	33	5	256	12 0	10 30	2 65	1 46	1 47	0 13	3 85	2 50	3 62	312	1,129
63	—	2	65	11 30	10 17	2 90	—	1 50	0 10	3 24	2 85	3 20	243	778
994	139	211	1,344	11 16	10 8	3 09	1 45	1 51	0 16	4 00	2 67	3 74	287	1,074
282	22	36	340	11 34	9 50	2 78	1 67	1 50	0 07	4 12	2 57	3 73	311	1,160
72	23	9	104	12 0	11 0	3 25	1 50	1 25	0 23	3 99	2 68	3 82	300	1,146
26	—	—	26	12 0	10 30	3 43	—	—	0 03	3 65	3 43	3 60	250	900
380	45	45	470	11 41	10 8	2 91	1 60	1 45	0 10	4 08	2 65	3 74	307	1,148
530	138	35	703	11 58	9 31	3 28	1 53	1 30	0 25	4 30	2 85	4 00	296	1,184
209	32	71	312	12 0	10 0	2 90	1 90	1 47	0 18	4 06	2 47	3 88	285	1,103

COMBUSTIBLES.

ANTHRACITE.

Appendix X.—Number, Average Wages, and Duration of Labour of the

Names of Groups and Basins.	Names of Departments.	Nature of the Substances extracted.	Average daily Output.	Hands employed in the Mine. Number: Of Miners properly so-called.	Of other skilled Workmen.	Of unskilled Workmen.	Of Children from 12 to 16 Years.	Total.	Average Number of Hours present per Day in Mine.	Average Number of Hours of actual Labour per Day.	Average daily Wages: Of Miners properly so-called.	Of other skilled Workmen.	Of unskilled Workmen.	Of Children.
I.—Mineral Combustibles.														
Creuse and Corrèze.			Tons.						Hrs. m.	Hrs. m.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.
Ahun	Creuse	Coal	633	376	57	171	—	604	10 0	9 0	4 15	3 75	3 00	—
Bourganeuf	Creuse	„	37	25	2	11	2	40	10 0	9 0	3 10	3 00	2 50	1 50
Cublac, Meymac, and Argentat.	Corrèze	„	13	22	3	11	—	36	10 0	9 0	3 58	3 07	2 59	—
	Total and average.	—	683	423	62	193	2	680	10 0	9 0	4 04	3 69	2 94	1 50
Western Alps.														
La Mure	Isère	Anthracite	441	624	123	16	—	763	9 0	7 36	4 00	3 40	3 03	—
Maurienne-Tarentaise and Briançon.	Hautes-Alpes, Savoie,	„	149	299	8	67	—	374	8 30	7 57	1 92	3 25	1 93	—
Oisans	Isère	„	5	32	6	—	—	38	10 0	8 19	2 20	2 42	—	—
Chablais and Faucigny	Haute-Savoie	„	2	2	—	1	—	3	10 0	10 0	3 00	—	2 50	—
	Total and average.	—	597	957	137	84	—	1,178	8 53	7 25	3 32	3 36	2 19	—
West.														
Le Maine	Mayenne, Sarthe	Anthracite	233	199	10	85	30	324	10 5	8 19	3 49	2 87	2 27	1 34
Basse-Loire	Loire-Inférieure, Maine-et-Loire.	Coal	171	214	9	104	8	335	9 48	8 17	3 42	3 42	2 50	1 25
Vouvant and Chantonay.	Vendée, Deux-Sèvres.	„	148	139	9	101	14	263	10 0	8 34	4 18	4 11	2 67	1 50
	Total and average.	—	552	552	28	290	52	922	9 57	8 23	3 64	3 45	2 51	1 37
Les Maures.														
Les Maures	Var	Coal and bituminous schist.	23	95	3	51	9	158	10 0	9 31	4 25	4 75	3 25	2 00
2. Lig-														
Provence.														
Fuveau	Bouches-du-Rhône.	Lignite	1,223	966	109	534	133	1,742	8 1	7 1	4 71	4 17	3 33	2 72
Manosque	Basses-Alpes	„	100	84	4	10	2	100	9 53	9 12	3 98	3 50	3 05	2 00
	Total and average.	—	1,323	1,050	113	544	135	1,842	8 8	7 8	4 66	4 15	3 32	2 72
Comtat.														
Bagnols, Orange, Banc-Rouge.	Gard, Vaucluse	Lignite	83	93	—	—	—	93	8 51	8 51	4 37	—	—	—
Barjac	Gard	„	12	10	—	—	—	10	9 0	9 0	3 90	—	—	—
Méthamis	Vaucluse	„	3	9	—	4	—	13	10 0	8 0	4 50	—	3 75	—
	Total and average.	—	98	112	—	4	—	116	8 59	8 46	4 34	—	3 75	—
Southern Vosges.														
Gouhenans	Haute-Saône	Lignite	31	32	—	28	5	65	9 0	8 0	2 90	—	2 15	1 90
Norroy	Vosges	„	5	8	4	7	—	19	11 0	11 0	2 75	3 50	2 00	—
	Total and average.	—	36	40	4	35	5	84	9 27	8 40	2 87	3 50	2 12	1 90
South-West.														
Millau and Trévezel.	Aveyron, Gard	Lignite	16	33	2	2	—	37	9 53	9 6	3 66	3 50	2 50	—
Estavar	Pyrénées-Orientales.	„	7	5	—	3	—	8	10 0	10 0	3 15	—	2 55	—
La Caunette	Hérault	„	4	9	—	—	2	11	10 0	9 0	3 50	—	—	1 25
Simeyrols and La Chapelle-Péchaud.	Dordogne	„	2	6	—	—	—	6	10 0	10 0	2 67	—	—	—
	Total and average.	—	29	53	2	5	2	62	9 56	9 17	3 47	3 50	2 53	1 25
Haut-Rhône.														
La Tour-du-Pin	Isère	Lignite	5	22	11	—	—	33	11 0	10 0	1 95	1 95	—	—
Hauterives	Drôme	„	4	3	—	2	—	5	9 0	8 0	3 00	—	2 75	—
Douvres	Jura	„	2	2	1	4	—	7	10 0	9 0	3 50	4 00	2 50	—
	Total and average	—	11	27	12	6	—	45	10 37	9 37	2 18	2 12	2 58	—
General total and average for combustible minerals.			84,312	42,756	11,428	23,120	5,184	82,488	9 45	8 13	5 04	4 41	3 58	1 91

various categories of Workmen employed in Mines—*continued.*

Hands employed outside the Mines.									Estimated addition to daily Wages arising from Allowances of Fuel, Rent, Pensions, Aid, &c.	Average daily Wages per Head.		Average daily Wages per Head without Distinction, and including the estimated Addition.	Average Number of Working Days in 1885.	Average annual Wages per Head without distinction, and including the estimated Addition.
Number				Average Number of Hours present at the Mine per Day.	Average Number of Hours of actual Labour per Day.	Average daily Wages.								
Of Men.	Of Women.	Of Children.	Total.			Of men.	Of Women.	Of Children.		In the Mine.	Above ground.			
				Hrs. m.	Hrs. m.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.		Francs.
1. Coal and Anthracite—*continued.*														
358	158	64	580	12 0	11 0	2 80	1 60	1 40	0 10	3 95	2 32	3 17	321	1,017
8	—	2	10	12 0	11 0	2 52	—	1 50	—	2 83	2 30	2 72	286	778
11	—	—	11	12 0	11 0	2 56	—	—	—	3 22	2 56	3 06	195	597
377	168	66	601	12 0	11 0	2 79	1 60	1 40	0 09	3 70	2 32	3 14	315	989
260	33	21	314	10 0	9 0	3 05	2 68	2 00	0 13	3 87	2 94	3 73	250	933
19	—	—	19	10 0	10 0	2 50	—	—	0 15	1 95	2 47	2 01	101	203
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2 16	—	2 16	85	104
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3 00	—	3 00	25	75
279	33	21	333	10 0	9 3	3 00	2 68	2 00	0 13	3 20	2 92	3 27	204	667
137	—	6	143	12 6	10 36	2 47	—	0 98	0 09	2 96	2 41	2 88	284	818
158	—	6	164	11 20	9 47	2 67	—	1 00	0 16	3 09	2 61	3 07	270	829
120	—	12	132	11 21	9 21	2 41	—	1 42	0 26	3 46	2 32	3 34	264	882
415	—	24	439	11 36	9 56	2 53	—	1 20	0 17	3 15	2 46	3 09	273	844
22	6	2	30	10 0	10 0	3 50	1 50	1 25	—	3 81	2 97	3 68	252	927
NITE.														
545	65	41	651	10 3	9 9	3 49	1 50	1 37	0 14	4 10	3 17	3 99	255	1,017
42	—	1	43	11 0	9 56	2 71	—	2 00	—	3 83	2 70	3 49	264	917
587	65	42	694	10 6	9 12	3 44	1 50	1 39	0 13	4 09	3 14	3 96	255	1,010
16	—	—	16	9 26	8 56	2 43	—	—	—	4 37	2 43	4 08	216	881
2	—	—	2	11 0	9 0	2 50	—	—	—	3 90	2 50	3 67	190	697
2	—	—	2	10 0	10 0	2 75	—	—	—	4 31	2 75	4 07	202	828
20	—	—	20	9 33	9 3	2 47	—	—	—	4 32	2 47	4 04	212	856
13	—	1	14	11 0	9 30	2 50	—	1 25	0 09	2 49	2 43	2 57	256	658
11	—	—	11	11 0	11 0	2 18	—	—	0 13	2 63	2 18	2 60	107	278
24	—	1	25	11 0	10 9	2 35	—	1 25	0 10	2 53	2 32	2 58	216	557
9	—	—	9	11 0	9 53	2 50	—	—	—	3 59	2 50	3 39	188	637
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3 00	—	3 00	251	751
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3 09	—	3 09	137	423
1	—	—	1	10 0	10 0	3 00	—	—	—	2 67	3 00	2 71	46	125
10	—	—	10	10 54	9 54	2 55	—	—	—	3 34	2 55	3 24	177	573
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1 94	—	1 94	168	326
1	—	—	1	9 0	9 0	2 75	—	—	—	3 00	2 75	3 00	94	282
7	—	—	7	10 0	9 0	2 50	—	—	—	3 57	2 50	3 00	133	399
8	—	—	8	9 52	9 0	2 53	—	—	—	2 31	2 53	2 34	153	358
21,926	3,231	3,970	29,127	10 46	9 39	3 21	1 61	1 44	0 35	4 34	2 80	4 29	290	1,244

APPENDIX X.—Number, Average Wages, and Duration of Labour of the

Names of Departments.	Nature of the Substances extracted.	Average daily Output.	Hands employed in the Mine.										
			Number					Average Number of Hours present per Day in Mine.	Average Number of Hours of actual Labour per Day.	Average daily Wages.			
			Of Miners properly so-called.	Of other skilled Workmen.	Of unskilled Workmen.	Of Children from 12 to 16 Years.	Total.			Of Miners properly so-called.	Of other skilled Workmen.	Of unskilled Workmen.	Of Children.
II.—IRON													
NORTH-EAST.		Tons.						Hrs. m.	Hrs. m.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.
Meurthe-et-Moselle	Iron	6,760	1,802	238	67	59	2,166	10 0	9 7	4 43	4 00	3 19	2 19
Saône-et-Loire	„	390	139	22	24	8	193	10 0	9 0	4 15	3 80	3 50	2 25
Jura	„	7	3	—	1	—	4	10 0	9 0	3 50	—	2 50	—
	Total and average	7,157	1,944	260	92	67	2,363	10 0	9 7	4 41	3 99	3 26	2 19
SOUTH-EAST.													
Isère	Iron	187	194	48	19	—	261	10 2	9 2	3 35	3 04	2 74	—
Ardèche	„	268	95	8	88	—	191	10 0	9 0	4 01	3 50	2 91	—
Gard	„	151	84	—	—	—	84	9 0	9 0	4 24	—	—	—
Var	„	35	10	2	8	—	20	10 0	9 30	4 00	4 50	3 00	—
Savoie	„	1	—	4	—	—	4	10 0	10 0	—	3 70	—	—
	Total and average	642	383	62	115	—	560	9 52	9 2	3 73	3 18	2 89	—
SOUTH-WEST.													
Pyrénées-Orientales	Iron	126	106	10	2	—	118	10 41	10 0	3 76	3 30	2 50	—
Ariège	„	66	83	7	106	6	202	7 21	6 21	2 10	2 48	2 01	1 00
Aveyron	„	45	19	—	+	—	19	10 0	9 0	3 60	—	—	—
Tarn	„	3	10	—	6	—	16	10 0	9 0	3 40	—	2 50	—
Aude	„	4	4	—	2	—	6	12 0	10 0	3 00	—	2 50	—
	Total and average	244	222	17	116	6	361	8 46	7 52	3 09	2 90	2 05	1 00
NORTH-WEST.													
Manche	Iron	100	45	—	41	—	86	10 0	9 30	5 00	—	3 70	—
Calvados	„	154	54	6	10	—	70	10 0	9 0	4 21	4 35	3 10	—
	Total and average	254	99	6	51	—	156	10 0	9 30	4 57	4 35	3 58	—
	General total and average for iron ore.	8,297	2,648	345	374	73	3,440	9 51	8 55	4 25	3 77	2 82	2 10
III.—METALLIC													
CENTRE.													
Puy-de-Dôme	Silver galena	68	229	26	53	—	308	8 14	7 14	2 81	3 00	2 34	—
Rhône	Iron pyrites	600	152	38	83	—	273	9 30	8 30	4 75	4 65	4 25	—
Saône-et-Loire	Peroxide of manganese	40	44	7	10	—	61	10 0	9 0	4 25	3 71	3 50	—
Haute-Loire	Sulphuretted antimony	3	22	4	21	—	47	8 0	8 0	4 00	4 00	2 75	—
Creuse	Tin	—	—	—	12	—	12	11 0	10 0	—	—	2 50	—
Indre	Peroxide of manganese	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Total and average	713	447	75	179	—	701	8 55	7 59	3 66	3 96	3 35	—
SOUTH-EAST.													
Var	Silver galena and blend	105	142	5	85	—	232	9 30	8 30	4 39	5 00	3 25	—
Lozère	Sulphuretted antimony and silver galena.	38	116	6	44	—	166	10 11	9 16	3 54	2 76	3 18	—
Corse	Sulphuretted antimony	8	161	5	75	27	268	9 50	9 8	3 76	4 25	3 00	1 50
Gard	Iron pyrites, calamine, blend, and sulphuretted antimony.	58	94	12	54	—	160	9 32	9 0	4 05	4 92	3 00	—
Ardèche	Silver galena and blend	2	51	6	25	—	82	10 0	10 0	3 61	3 83	2 80	—
Drôme	Calamine	25	18	—	25	—	43	10 0	9 0	4 00	—	3 00	—
	Total and average	236	582	34	308	27	951	9 47	9 3	3 91	4 26	3 08	1 50

various categories of Workmen employed in Mines—*continued.*

Hands employed outside the Mines.									Estimated addition to daily Wages arising from Allowances of Fuel, Rent, Pensions, Aid, &c.	Average daily Wages per Head.		Average daily Wages per Head without distinction, and including the estimated Addition.	Average Number of Working Days in 1889.	Average annual Wages per Head without distinction, and including the estimated Addition.
Number.				Average Number of Hours present at the Mine per Day.	Average Number of Hours of actual Labour per Day.	Average daily Wages.				In the Mine.	Above Ground.			
Of Men.	Of Women.	Of Children.	Total.			Of Men.	Of Women.	Of Children.						
				Hrs. m.	Hrs. m.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.		Francs.
468	—	22	490	10 44	10 3	3 60	—	1 64	0 07	4 28	3 68	4 20	274	1,150
26	—	—	26	10 0	10 0	3 00	—	—	0 30	3 95	3 00	4 14	263	1,089
1	—	—	1	10 0	9 0	2 50	—	—	—	3 25	2 50	3 10	112	347
495	—	22	517	10 44	10 3	3 57	—	1 64	0 09	4 26	3 49	4 20	273	1,146
73	10	20	103	12 0	10 0	2 40	1 60	1 50	0 24	3 18	2 15	3 17	299	948
35	—	1	36	10 0	10 0	2 55	—	1 25	0 13	3 48	2 50	3 46	270	934
35	—	—	35	10 54	9 34	3 17	—	—	0 20	4 24	3 17	4 02	256	1,029
4	4	—	8	10 0	10 0	3 25	1 50	—	—	3 65	2 28	3 29	303	997
1	—	—	1	10 0	10 0	4 00	—	—	2 00	3 70	4 00	4 00	257	1,028
148	14	21	183	11 18	9 55	2 72	1 57	1 49	0 18	3 50	2 44	3 53	280	989
98	—	1	99	11 32	10 0	3 04	—	1 00	—	3 70	3 02	3 39	295	676
9	2	1	12	7 50	6 25	2 28	1 25	1 00	0 44	2 04	2 00	2 46	173	425
6	—	—	6	10 0	9 0	3 20	—	—	0 49	3 63	3 20	4 01	308	1,235
5	2	—	7	10 0	9 0	2 40	1 20	—	0 02	3 06	2 14	2 83	83	235
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2 83	—	2 83	334	945
118	4	2	124	11 0	9 33	2 96	1 23	1 00	0 22	2 71	2 88	2 97	234	695
45	—	—	45	12 0	11 0	3 49	—	—	—	4 38	3 49	4 08	205	836
3	—	—	3	10 0	10 0	4 0	—	—	0 13	4 06	4 00	4 18	282	1,191
48	—	—	48	11 52	11 0	3 52	—	—	0 05	4 24	3 52	4 12	234	964
809	18	45	872	10 56	10 0	3 31	1 59	1 53	0 12	4 00	3 18	3 95	268	1,059

ORES.

8	22	38	148	12 0	10 30	2 58	1 00	1 11	0 03	2 74	1 97	2 52	277	698
126	—	3	129	10 0	10 0	3 75	—	2 25	0 16	4 59	3 72	4 47	297	1,328
1	—	12	73	12 0	11 0	2 61	—	1 50	0 05	4 06	2 42	3 22	264	850
14	9	5	28	11 0	10 0	2 50	1 50	1 25	0 05	3 43	1 96	2 93	188	550
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2 50	—	2 50	140	350
7	—	—	7	12 0	11 0	3 00	—	—	—	—	3 00	3 00	182	546
296	31	58	385	11 15	10 24	3 09	1 16	1 26	0 03	3 61	2 66	3 36	270	907
92	79	10	181	10 0	10 0	3 27	1 56	2 00	0 03	3 98	2 45	3 34	291	972
160	42	33	235	11 14	9 44	2 83	1 43	1 48	0 05	3 43	2 40	2 87	225	646
67	31	7	105	10 0	10 0	2 84	1 26	0 75	—	3 33	2 23	3 00	162	486
88	12	38	138	11 16	10 0	3 25	1 67	1 50	0 04	3 76	2 62	3 27	265	867
45	9	7	61	11 0	10 44	2 82	1 34	1 86	0 20	3 38	2 50	3 19	154	491
8	10	9	27	10 0	10 0	2 75	2 00	1 50	0 04	3 42	2 07	2 92	232	682
460	183	104	747	10 37	9 58	3 00	1 50	1 50	0 05	3 58	2 42	3 12	236	736

APPENDIX X.—Number, Average Wages, and Duration of Labour of the

Names of Departments.	Nature of the Substances extracted.	Average daily Output.	Hands employed in the Mine.										
			Number					Average Number of Hours present per Day in Mine.	Average Number of Hours of Actual Labour per Day.	Average daily Wages.			
			Of Miners properly so-called.	Of other skilled Workmen.	Of unskilled Workmen.	Of Children from 12 to 16 Years.	Total.			Of Miners properly so-called.	Of other skilled Workmen.	Of unskilled Workmen.	Of Children.
III.—METALLIC													
SOUTH-WEST.		Tons						Hrs. m.	Hrs. m.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.
Aveyron	Silver galena and blend	94	139	46	91	1	277	8 19	7 19	4 39	3 76	3 06	1 50
Tarn	„ „ „	60	65	22	42	—	129	9 0	8 0	3 50	2 75	2 40	—
Hautes-Pyrénées	Silver galena	65	90	7	23	—	120	12 0	10 0	4 25	5 00	3 00	—
Basses-Pyrénées	Blend and pyritic copper	22	93	5	31	7	136	8 0	8 0	4 43	5 00	3 00	1 90
Ariège	Silver galena, blend, and calamine.	9	54	4	30	11	99	11 54	10 19	5 28	4 75	3 27	2 00
Aude	Silver galena and bioxide of manganese.	24	46	7	20	3	76	11 30	10 0	3 26	3 43	2 60	1 67
Dordogne	Iron pyrites	13	14	2	—	—	16	12 0	10 0	3 50	3 50	—	—
Haute-Garonne	Galena and blend	—	2	1	3	—	6	12 0	11 0	6 00	5 00	3 15	—
Pyrénées-Orientales	Bioxide of manganese	—	4	1	4	—	9	10 0	10 0	3 00	2 75	2 50	—
	Total and average	287	507	95	244	22	868	9 40	8 37	4 22	3 71	2 90	1 91
NORTH-WEST.													
Ille-et-Vilaine	Silver galena and blend	200	285	30	140	—	455	8 0	7 0	3 10	3 10	2 80	—
Morbihan	Tin	—	24	4	—	—	28	8 0	8 0	2 50	2 50	—	—
Côtes-du-Nord	Silver galena and blend	—	11	2	—	—	13	8 0	7 0	3 00	3 00	—	—
	Total and average	200	320	36	140	—	496	8 0	7 4	3 05	3 03	2 80	—
	General total and average for metallic ores other than iron.	1,436	1,856	240	871	42	3,016	9 15	8 21	3 79	3 76	3 04	1 68
IV.—VARIOUS													
SOUTH-EAST.													
Ain	Asphaltic lime	38	21	—	17	—	38	11 44	10 27	3 48	—	3 00	—
Gard	„ „	15	24	—	12	—	36	10 45	10 20	3 67	—	2 75	—
Haute-Savoie	„ „	6	9	—	2	—	11	10 0	10 0	3 00	—	2 75	—
	Total and average	59	54	—	31	—	85	11 6	10 20	3 49	—	2 90	—
CENTRE.													
Saône-et-Loire	Boghead and bituminous schists.	478	276	45	57	2	380	11 0	8 30	3 83	3 47	3 19	2 25
Allier	Bituminous schists	155	99	13	32	—	144	8 41	7 38	3 30	3 07	2 97	—
	Total and average	633	375	58	89	2	524	10 22	8 16	3 67	3 38	3 11	2 25
SOUTH-WEST.													
Vaucluse, Basses-Alpes.	Sulphur	14	23	—	6	1	30	9 46	9 16	4 07	—	3 50	2 00
Hautes-Alpes	Graphite	1	4	—	—	—	4	9 0	7 0	2 00	—	—	—
	General total and average for various substances.	707	456	58	126	3	643	10 26	8 35	3 65	3 39	3 08	2 17
V.—ROCK SALT AND													
NORTH-EAST.													
Meurthe-et-Moselle	Rock salt	286	83	—	38	—	121	8 23	7 53	4 66	—	3 39	—
Doubs, Jura, Haute-Saône.	Salt springs	164	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Total and average	450	83	—	38	—	121	8 23	7 53	4 66	—	3 39	—
TH-WEST.													
Landes	Rock salt	45	13	—	3	—	16	10 30	9 0	3 10	—	3 25	—
Basses-Pyrénées	„ „	40	13	—	3	—	16	12 0	10 0	3 25	—	3 25	—
	Total and average	85	26	—	6	—	32	11 15	9 30	3 19	—	3 25	—
	General total and average for salts.	535	109	—	44	—	153	9 0	8 17	4 32	—	3 39	—

various categories of Workmen employed in Mines—*continued.*

Hands employed outside the Mines.													
Number				Average Number of Hours present at the Mine per Day.	Average Number of Hours of actual Labour per Day.	Average daily Wages.			Estimated addition to daily Wages arising from Allowances of Fuel, Rent, Pensions, Aid, &c.	Average daily Wages per Head.		Average daily Wages per Head without distinction, and including the estimated addition.	Average Number of Working Days in 1889.	Average annual Wages per Head without distinction, and including the estimated Addition.
Of Men.	Of Women.	Of Children.	Total.			Of Men.	Of Women.	Of Children.		In the Mine.	Above Ground.			
ORES—*continued.*														
				Hrs. m.	Hrs. m.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.		Francs.
158	78	3	239	11 0	9 38	2 96	1 62	1 50	0 19	3 85	2 50	3 41	314	1,071
104	20	2	126	10 0	9 0	2 40	1 20	1 25	0 11	3 00	2 20	2 72	198	538
70	—	57	127	12 0	10 0	3 00	—	1 40	—	4 00	2 30	3 14	281	882
59	26	3	88	10 0	10 0	3 00	1 50	1 40	—	3 99	2 50	3 41	120	409
46	24	10	80	12 0	11 0	1 91	0 88	1 20	0 06	4 27	1 50	3 09	267	825
52	10	3	65	12 0	10 0	2 33	1 10	1 25	0 07	3 04	2 09	2 67	282	753
4	—	—	4	12 0	10 0	3 50	—	—	0 08	3 50	3 50	3 58	344	1,232
2	5	—	7	12 0	11 0	4 25	1 50	—	—	4 33	4 00	4 20	35	147
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2 78	—	2 78	122	339
495	163	78	736	11 5	9 59	2 49	1 41	1 37	0 09	3 74	2 26	3 15	250	788
354	147	28	529	11 0	9 45	2 59	1 30	1 10	—	3 00	2 15	2 55	276	704
14	—	—	14	11 0	10 0	2 10	—	—	—	2 50	2 07	2 36	306	722
4	—	—	4	12 0	10 0	2 15	—	—	—	3 00	2 25	2 82	279	787
372	147	28	547	11 0	9 45	2 57	1 30	1 10	—	3 00	2 15	2 54	278	706
1,623	524	268	2,415	10 57	9 57	2 82	1 39	1 37	0 04	3 54	2 35	3 24	256	829
SUBSTANCES.														
45	—	2	47	10 0	10 0	3 00	—	2 00	—	3 26	2 96	3 09	286	884
28	—	—	28	11 2	10 58	2 50	—	—	—	3 36	2 50	2 98	183	545
1	—	—	1	10 0	10 0	2 75	—	—	—	3 00	2 75	3 00	189	567
74	—	2	76	10 23	10 21	2 81	—	2 00	—	3 27	2 79	3 04	232	705
73	—	7	80	12 0	11 0	2 89	—	1 75	0 17	3 67	2 79	3 66	280	1,025
25	—	—	25	10 53	9 48	2 64	—	—	0 06	3 21	2 64	3 18	234	744
98	—	7	105	11 44	10 43	2 83	—	1 75	0 14	3 54	2 75	3 54	267	945
8	—	—	8	9 0	9 0	3 44	—	—	—	3 90	3 44	3 79	200	758
1	—	—	1	8 0	8 0	1 50	—	—	—	2 00	1 50	1 90	70	133
181	—	9	190	11 5	10 31	2 84	—	1 81	0 11	3 51	2 79	3 45	255	880
SALT SPRINGS.														
36	—	1	37	11 19	10 26	3 50	—	1 50	0 08	4 26	3 46	4 18	297	1,241
8	—	—	8	10 7	9 52	4 00	—	—	0 01	—	4 00	4 01	313	1,252
44	—	1	45	11 6	10 20	3 51	—	1 50	0 08	4 26	3 56	4 15	297	1,233
6	—	—	6	10 30	9 0	2 50	—	—	—	3 13	2 50	2 95	282	832
5	—	—	5	12 0	10 0	2 50	—	—	—	3 31	2 50	3 14	279	876
11	—	—	11	11 11	9 30	2 50	—	—	—	3 22	2 50	3 05	280	854
55	—	1	56	11 7	10 10	3 38	—	1 50	0 06	4 04	3 35	3 92	295	1,156

APPENDIX XI.

LAW of July 8th, 1890, providing for DELEGATES for the SAFETY of WORKING MINERS.(1)

The Senate and the Chamber of Deputies have adopted, the President of the Republic promulgates the following law :

ARTICLE 1.—Delegates for the safety of miners are appointed subject to the regulations of the present law, to visit the underground workings of mines, *minières* or quarries, for the exclusive purpose of examining the safeguards for the persons of the workers therein employed, and further, in case of accident, of examining the circumstances under which the accident shall have occurred. A delegate and an assistant delegate exercise their functions within a subterranean district, the limits of which are prescribed by an order of the prefect, given under the authority of the Minister of Public Works in accordance with the report of the inspecting engineers of mines, the director having been informed (*l'exploitant entendu*).

Each group of shafts, galleries, and yards under one management, for the detailed inspection of which not more than six days are required, constitutes only one district. Other works are sub-divided into two, three, or more districts, according as the inspection requires respectively 12, 18, or more days. The same order declares the boundaries of the various districts into which the whole group of neighbouring shafts, galleries, and yards under one management, and within the bounds of the same commune or of several adjacent communes is, if necessary, divided.

At any time the prefect may, in consequence of changes arising in the works, modify the number and the limits of the districts on the report of the engineers of mines, and the director having been informed. To the prefect's order a plan is annexed giving the boundaries of each district and showing the limits of the communes under whose territory they extend. On the demand of the prefect and in accordance with his directions this plan is supplied by the director in three copies. The prefect's order is notified within the week to the director, to whom one of the plans annexed to the said order is sent at the same time. A duplicate of the prefect's order, with one of the plans annexed, is deposited at the town hall (*mairie*) of the commune specially named in the order as being among those under which the districts extend which the plan marks out. The duplicate is kept there, without being removed, for the use of all interested.

An order from the prefect, given upon the report of the engineers of mines, can dispense with the services of delegates in the case of every concession of mines, or every group of concessions of mines or all underground workings of *minières* or quarries dependent on the same director, which employ less than 25 workmen working underground.

ARTICLE 2.—The delegate must visit all the shafts, galleries and yards in his district twice a month. He must also see to all the apparatus used for traffic and the conveyance of workmen, and visit without delay those places where an accident, resulting in death or serious injuries to one or more workers, or any changes which may affect the safety of the workmen, have occurred. Notice of the accident must be given immediately to the delegate by the director.

The delegate in his visits must conform to all the measures prescribed by the regulations, with a view to secure order and safety in the works.

The assistant delegate only takes the place of the delegate in the event of any obstacle alleged by him, and after notice of it has been given by the delegate both to the director and to the assistant.

ARTICLE 3.—The observations made by the delegate on each of his visits ought to be recorded by him on the same day or at latest the next day in a register specially supplied by the director, and always kept at the works for the use of workmen. The delegate writes down on the register the hour at which he has begun and ended his visit as well as the account of his survey.

The director may put down on the same register his opinions and his remarks upon those of the delegate. Copies of both are immediately sent by the respective authors to the prefect, who communicates them to the engineers of mines. After their circuits (*tournées*) the engineers of mines and comptrollers of mines must sign the register of each district. They can always be accompanied on their visits by the delegate of the district.

ARTICLE 4.—The delegate and assistant delegate are chosen by ballot (*scrutin de liste*) under the forms provided in the following Articles.

ARTICLE 5.—The workmen who work underground are electors in a district on the condition :—

1. That they are French, and enjoy political rights.
2. That their names are inscribed on the note of the last wage paid in the district before the order for convening electors.

ARTICLE 6.—The following are eligible delegates in any district on condition of knowing how to read and write, and never having undergone sentence for an infringement of the provisions of the present law or of the law of April 21st, 1810, or of the decree of the 3rd January 1813, or of Articles 414 and 415 of the Penal Code :—

(1.) The electors above designated (Article 5) who have completed their 25th year and have worked underground for at least five years in the district or in one of the neighbouring districts dependent on the same director which are settled by the same prefect's order in accordance with paragraph 3 of the above 1st Article ;

(2.) Former workmen living in the communes under which the whole district with the district in question extends, in the same order (*même arrêté*) fixing the boundaries in accordance with the said paragraph 3 of the 1st Article, on condition that they have completed their 25th year, that they are French and enjoy political rights, and that they have worked underground for at least five years in the districts comprised in the aforesaid order, and that not more than 10 years have elapsed since they were employed as underground workmen, delegate or assistant delegate.

(3.) Former workmen will only be eligible if they have already been delegates, not only for a district of the director's mine, but also for a district of another mine situated in or beyond their commune.

For the first five years which follow upon the opening of works in a new district, those electors shall be chosen who have had five years' work underground in a mine, *minière*, or quarry of the same nature.

ARTICLE 7.—During the eight days which follow the publication of the prefect's order, calling together the electors, three copies of the electoral list of the district, drawn up by the director, are delivered by him to the mayor of each of the parishes over which the district extends. The mayor has this list immediately posted on the door or the town hall (*mairie*) and makes an official note of the posting up of the list (*dresse procès-verbal de cet affichage*). He sends the two other copies to the prefect and to the justice of the peace with a copy of the official note of the publication. Within eight days also, the director must have posted up the said list in the ordinary places for notices to workmen.

If the director does not send to the mayors and does not have the electoral list posted up, in the said time and under the conditions provided above, the prefect must prepare and post up this list at the expense of the director, without removing the penalties which shall be pronounced against the latter for contravention of the present law. In case of complaint from those interested, application must be made, five days at the most after that on which the posting up has been carried out by the least expeditious mayor (*par le maire le moins diligent*), to the justice of the peace, who gives decree on plea of urgency and without appeal (*statue d'urgence et en dernier ressort*). If a district extends over two or more cantons, the competent justice of the peace is he whose canton includes the town hall of the commune designated as the voting place by the prefect's order at the convocation of electors.

ARTICLE 8.—The electors of a district are convened by an order from the prefect,

(1) No. 157, Chambre des Députés, Session, 1890.

The order must be published and posted up in the communes over which the district extends 15 days at least before the election, which must always take place on Sunday.

The order decides the date of the election, as well as the hours in which the ballot will be opened and shut.

The voting takes place in the town hall of the commune fixed upon by the order of summons from among those communes over which the district extends.

ARTICLE 9.—The electoral committee is presided over by the mayor, who chooses as his assistants the oldest and the youngest of the electors present at the time of the opening of the ballot, and failing the electors present or consenting to sit, two members of the Municipal Council. Each vote bears the names showing the qualification for the delegate or for the assistant delegate in each candidate.

No one is elected on the first round of the ballot if he has not obtained the complete majority of votes given, and a number of votes equal to at least a quarter of the number of the electors enrolled.

At the second round of the ballot the majority is sufficient, whatever number of votes there may be. In case of an equal number of votes the eldest of the candidates is elected. If a second ballot is necessary it must take place on the following Sunday, under the same conditions with regard to formalities and duration.

The voting is effected under cover of a fixed form left at the prefecture under pain of becoming void.

ARTICLE 10.—Those who have influenced the vote by blows, violence, threats, bribes, or promises, whether by causing an elector to fear loss of his appointment, or deprivation of his work, or by exposing his person, his family or his fortune to injury, shall be punished with an imprisonment of one month to one year and a fine of 100 to 2,000 francs.

Article 463 of the the Penal Code may be applied.

ARTICLE 11.—Every election may be annulled in which the candidates elected shall have influenced the voting by promising to interfere in questions or claims foreign to the delegate's functions, such as are defined in section 1 of the 1st Article.

ARTICLE 12.—After the counting of the votes the president proclaims the result. He draws up and delivers to the prefect the official report of the proceedings. Petitions must be recorded in the official report or be directed, under penalty of becoming void, within three days from the day of election, to the prefect, who acknowledges receipt of the same.

The directors, as well as the electors, can within the same time, direct their petitions to the prefect. In case of petition, or if the prefect considers that the conditions prescribed by law are not carried out, a brief is sent at latest on the fifteenth day after the election to the Council of Prefecture, who must decide within the following eight days.

In case of annulment the election must take place within a month.

ARTICLE 13.—The delegates and assistant delegates are elected for three years; but they must continue their duties until they are replaced. At the end of three years new elections take place within one month.

In the month which follows a vacancy arrangements are made for supplying the place of the delegate or assistant delegate who has died, or resigned, or been dismissed, or who has failed in qualifications necessary for the post.

The newly-elected delegate is nominated for the period still to run up to the time which was assigned for the functions of the official whom he replaces.

Fresh elections will have to take place for the districts which are created or changed by application of paragraph 4 of the 1st Article of the present law.

ARTICLE 14.—Article 7, paragraph 3, of the decree of the 3rd January 1813, is altered thus:—

In case of disputes, three experts will be ordered to carry out the necessary examinations. The first shall be nominated by the prefect, the second by the director, and the third shall *ex-officio* be the delegate of the district, or will be appointed by the justice of the peace, if a district does not exist.

If the examination concerns several districts the delegates of these districts shall nominate the third official from amongst themselves.

ARTICLE 15.—Each delegate or assistant delegate can be suspended for serious negligence or abuse in the exerise of his duties, or in consequence of convictions pronounced by virtue of Articles 414 and 415 of the Penal Code, but only for three months at the most by a resolution of the prefect, taken after inquiry, with advice given by the engineers of mines, and the delegate having been informed (*le délégué entendu*). The order for suspension is submitted within a fortnight by the prefect to the Minister of Public Works, who can increase or reduce the period of suspension, and if necessary, pronounce the revocation of the delegate.

The delegates and assistant delegates who have been revoked cannot be re-elected for a period of three years.

ARTICLE 16.—The delegate is paid by the Treasury for the visits ordered by the present law, as days of work.

In the month of December of each year the prefect, upon the advice of the engineers of mines, and by the authority of the Minister of Public Works, fixes for the following year and for each district, the maximum number of days to be taken by the delegate for his visits and the price by day. Likewise he fixes the minimum of the monthy indemnity for the districts containing at most 120 workmen. In other cases the indemnity to be granted to the delegates for the monthly regulation visits shall not be less than the price of 10 days' work a month. The supplementary visits made by a delegate, either to accompany the engineers or comptrollers of mines, or to inquire into accidents, shall be paid to him as an extra and at the same rate.

The delegate draws up, monthly, an account of the days employed on visits both by himself and by his assistant. This account is verified by the engineers of mines and checked (*arrêté*) by the prefect.

The amount due to each delegate is paid him by the Treasury upon an order delivered monthly by the prefect.

The sums advanced by the Treasury are recovered from the directors, as in the case of direct contributions.

ARTICLE 17.—Those persons will be prosecuted and punished in accordance with the law of the 21st April 1810, who put any obstacle in the way of visits and statements of the delegates, or who transgress the provisions of the present law.

ARTICLE 18.—The workings of open mines, *minières* and quarries, shall, by reason of the dangers which they present, be put on the same footing as underground workings as regards the application of the present law, by order of the prefect given upon the report of the engineers of mines.

Workmen in these undertakings shall be treated as underground workers in the matter of elections and eligibility.

Given at Paris, July 8, 1890,
CARNOT.

By the President of the Republic:
The Minister of Public Works,
YVES GUIZOT.

APPENDIX XII.

SUMMARY of TEXT of BILL regulating WORKMEN'S ASSOCIATIONS.(1)

PART I.

GENERAL PROVISIONS.

ARTICLE 1.—Co-operation is an association of persons sharing in a common work, in order to obtain, under the best conditions, the necessaries of life, to realise economy, or to obtain, the best possible profit from their resources of labour.

ARTICLE 2.—Co-operative societies are either private or commerical, according to their method of working. They can only be constituted as societies, with variable capital.

ARTICLE 3.—They cannot be composed of less than seven persons.

(1) No. 29 Sénat. Session 1892.

ARTICLE 4.—They can be formed by private deed, properly dated, and made out in duplicate. A notary deed is optional.

ARTICLE 5.—Every co-operative society must be registered, as well as its statutes and deeds.

ARTICLE 6.—The initial capital will be determined by the statutes of the society; it can be increased by the addition of new members or by increased payments of the associates. The shares cannot be under 20 francs nor over 100 francs. The part that each member can have in the society can not exceed 5,000 francs.

ARTICLE 7.—No co-operative society can be definitely established before the registration of the deed and the payment of the tenth part at least of each share. A declaration signed by the founders of the association to this effect must be filed at the first general assembly of the shareholders.

ARTICLE 8.—The first general assembly must be composed of at least half of the members, and half of the capital must be represented.

ARTICLE 9.—In the first meeting the administrators are chosen; they may be paid or unpaid, but they must belong to the society and can be revoked. A director is elected from among the administrators, who must be a Frenchman, and in full possession of all his civil and political rights. The inventory will take place at least once a year at a date fixed in the statutes.

ARTICLE 10.—The administrators and the director are only responsible for the proper execution of the trust confided to them; they contract no personal obligation during a period of their administration.

ARTICLE 11.—The capital may be diminished by reason of the withdrawal, exclusion, or decease of one or several members or for any other cause. When the capital shall have decreased by one-half, the society will be dissolved, unless a majority in the general assembly convoked by the chairman decides otherwise.

ARTICLE 12.—In all deeds, papers, and publications, printed or otherwise, the name of the society shall be followed by the words: *Co-operative society with variable capital.*

ARTICLE 13.—Each year a general assembly must be held, in which the books are produced and the balance-sheet read and submitted to the approval of the meeting.

ARTICLE 14.—If a general meeting finds itself outside the conditions determined in the statutes, a second will be convoked 15 days later; and in this assembly any deliberation will be legal, irrespective of the number of members present.

ARTICLE 15.—When a general assembly has to deliberate on a proposed modification of the statutes or on the dissolution of the society, each member must be notified a fortnight in advance, both of the day and the hour of the meeting and of the nature of the convocation. One-half of the members at least must be present, and one-half of the capital represented; however, where the society counts more than 4,000 members, one-fifth of the capital and one-fifth of the members will constitute a legal assembly.

ARTICLE 16.—Each member has only one vote, and cannot represent more than one absent member. A roll will be called at the commencement of each meeting.

ARTICLE 17.—The necessary deeds for the constitution or dissolution of a co-operative society are exempt from stamp duties and registration tax. Shares bear stamp duty under Article 18 of the law of April 23, 1871.

ARTICLE 18.—The allowance for stamp duty on shares shall not decrease with decrease of share capital, but in case of new issues stamp duties shall remain the same.

ARTICLE 19.—Co-operative societies are not dissolved by the death, withdrawal or bankruptcy of one of several members; they may be continued among the other associates.

ARTICLE 20.—Any member can withdraw under the conditions prescribed by the statutes.

ARTICLE 21.—In every co-operative society the general assembly convoked for the purpose has the right to decide by a majority of three-fourths of the voters present on the exclusion of one or more of its members. The share of the excluded member is returned to him after deduction is made of that portion which is destined to the reserve fund.

ARTICLE 22.—Every year the tenth part of the net profits of the society, and before declaring a dividend, is to be contributed to the reserve fund; yet where this fund exceeds the fifth part of the social capital, this injunction ceases to be obligatory.

ARTICLE 23.—Co-operative societies are not allowed to profit by the disposition of the present law, except on the condition that no more than 5 per cent. be asked on the capital as remuneration.

ARTICLE 24.—Co-operative societies can be represented before the courts by the director or a delegate of the council, unless the statutes may have disposed otherwise.

ARTICLE 25.—Co-operative societies with a variable capital may profit by the present law on the condition that they fulfil all the requirements of Part I. as well as of the part specially applying to them.

ARTICLE 26.—Co-operative societies that have been legally constituted can form among themselves "unions" for the study of their interests and the purchase and sale of different articles for the good of the society; these unions must declare, at the town hall, the names and addresses of the members, their statutes and the office of the union.

PART II.

RELATIVE TO SUPPLY ASSOCIATIONS OR STORES.

ARTICLE 27.—The deposits prescribed in Article 5 must be effected by co-operative supply societies at the office of the clerk of the court. In order to constitute the society the following papers must be put in: A copy of the Act of the society, a declaration similar to that contained in Article 7, and a declaration signed by the administrators of the general assembly to the effect that the prescriptions of the same Article have been obeyed.

ARTICLE 28.—Supply associations can admit adherents to the distribution of the objects purchased on the payment of an entry fee fixed by the statutes. The adherent can take no part in the administration or direction of the society, nor can he vote in the assemblies. The entry fee is put down to his account, to which is added annually his part in the bonus. As soon as the amount of his account reaches that of a share, he will take his place among the members of the society.

ARTICLE 29.—Supply associations which sell exclusively to their members and adherents and divide the bonus between all the clients according to the amount expended by each maintain their character of civil societies and pay no tax on the revenue, nor do they require any liquor licenses, but they must provide themselves with a wholesale and retail license.

PART III.

LOAN SOCIETIES.

ARTICLE 30.—Co-operative loan societies must fulfil the conditions prescribed in Article 5.

ARTICLE 31.—These societies can only be composed of members.

ARTICLE 32.—The loan societies which alone are admitted to benefit by the present law are those which effect discounting, advances, or deposits with their associates.

ARTICLE 33.—Loan societies are allowed to make advances of money to their members, and only to them, for a period not less than one year, and at a rate not exceeding 3 per cent.

PART IV.

BUILDING SOCIETIES.

ARTICLE 34.—Co-operative societies for the construction of workmen's houses have for their aim the rendering of their members proprietors of the habitation, either by lending on mortgage a sum of money to effect or complete the purchase, or by building the dwelling and selling it by annuities.

ARTICLE 35.—They are subjected to all the formalities of the supply and loan societies.

ARTICLE 36.—The loans or sale price cannot exceed 5,000 francs.

ARTICLE 37.—They can admit adherents in consideration of a monthly payment to be fixed by the statutes. These adherents can become members of the society when their payments reach to a tenth part of a share.

ARTICLE 38.—The reserve fund of each savings bank can be employed in loans made to co-operative societies up to one-tenth of the total. Each request on the part of these societies must be submitted to the approval of the Government.

ARTICLE 39.—The national insurance bank is authorised to treat with co-operative societies and effect insurances, having for its object to guarantee to them, in case of the premature death of one of its members, the entire payment of the sums remaining due at his death. These loans can, by exception, attain the sum of 5,000 francs.

PART V.

CO-OPERATIVE PRODUCTIVE SOCIETIES.

ARTICLE 40.—Co-operative productive societies have all the character of commercial societies. They maintain, however, their private character if they do business exclusively with their own members.

ARTICLE 41.—When a member brings to the society a share not in money, commissioners will be appointed by the general assembly to determine the value of the share.

ARTICLE 42.—Co-operative productive societies will have to conform to the rules laid down in Article 5.

ARTICLE 43.—Co-operative productive societies are bound to conform in all their transactions to the prescriptions of the commercial code.

ARTICLE 44.—In the societies the capital can not be increased until the half at least of the shares previously subscribed be paid up.

ARTICLE 45.—Co-operative productive societies are exempt from the income tax as long as the nominal capital of the society, divided by the number of associates, does not exceed 2,000 francs for each member.

PART VI.

TRANSFER OF SHARES.

ARTICLE 46.—The shares of a co-operative society having a commercial character are not negotiable until after the definite constitution of the society and its registration. The negotiation must be exclusively by means of transfer on the registers of the society.

The statutes may authorise the council of administration or general assembly to oppose the transfer.

ARTICLE 47.—In the transfers of credit effected by co-operative societies, the assignee shall enter into possession by the act of accepting the endorsed transfer of the debtor under whatever form. Article 1,690 of the Civil Code applies to those who cannot write.

ARTICLE 48.—After receipt of his signature the debtor shall be held liable for declaration of the fact, if he has given any other signature for transfer or notification of the amount.

ARTICLE 49.—Registration duties are fixed at 50 centimes for 100 francs for transfer of debts; 3 francs on the principal for deeds of acceptance; and one franc for witnessing of signatures.

PART VII.

PROFIT-SHARING.

ARTICLE 50.—Any merchant, manufacturer, or farmer and any commercial, manufacturing or agricultural, society, can admit its workmen or employés to a share in the profits in the enterprise without incurring responsibility in case of loss.

ARTICLE 51.—In accepting the share in profits, the interested parties can expressly renounce all control or verification. In case there be no specified renouncement, the control and verification can be regulated by agreement. In the case where there is no agreement, an accountant agreeable to both parties can be named by a civil magistrate.

ARTICLE 52.—In the case where, according to the statutes, the whole or a part of the profits annually distributed is kept in the business, and gives the right to a new share in the profits, the participants will possess no other rights as regards the control of the books than that defined in the last paragraph of the previous Article.

ARTICLE 53.—The profits distributed to the workmen in any industrial, commercial, or agricultural undertaking are exempt from all tax.

ARTICLE 54.—All the previous laws, in so far as they are contrary to the present law, are abolished. Co-operative societies already established can profit by the present law by conforming to its prescriptions.

APPENDIX XIII.

DRAFT BILL DRAWN UP BY THE COMMISSION ON LABOUR FOR THE CREATION OF A NATIONAL PROVIDENT FUND FOR INDUSTRIAL WORKERS.[1]

ARTICLE 1.—A national provident fund for French industrial workers of both sexes is hereby created, which shall be maintained by contributions of investors, of employers or masters, and by subsidies from the State.

ARTICLE 2.—The national provident fund for workers aims at forming pensions for labourers and, in general, at permitting them to make all the life assurances or settlements of capital which shall be provided and determined in the regulations for the fund. It is directed by the general director of the fund for deposits and consignments, assisted by a Higher Central Council.

ARTICLE 3.—It includes branches or local funds administered by a local council, and deputed specially to receive sums collected in the district, and turn them to best account either by investment in French Government Stock and guaranteed State securities or by loans to departments and communes, by investments in industrial, agricultural and commercial enterprises, public works, landed property, &c. An administrative order shall determine the number, position and scope of the local funds, as, likewise, the relations of the local councils to the Higher Central Council and to the cantonal committee, which will be further treated of in Articles 19 and 20 of the present law.

ARTICLE 4.—The Higher Central Council, meeting in Paris, shall determine the general conditions of investments, which shall not be made without being so authorised.

It shall further be held responsible for the control of the management of the national fund and the branch funds, shall determine the various conditions of assurance both in life annuities and in stock, and shall fix the rate of interest adopted for the tariffs.

ARTICLE 5.—The Higher Central Council is presided over by the Minister of Commerce, and consists of:—

Two senators nominated by the Senate;
Two deputies nominated by the Chamber of Deputies;
Two members of the Accountant-General's office, and two members of the Council of State nominated by the Minister of Commerce;
The general director of the Fund for Deposits and Consignments;
The general director of Funds for the Minister of Finance;
The general director of assessed taxes (*Directeur Général des Contributions directes*);

(1) No. 2,576. Chambre des Députés, 1893.

Two inspectors of finance;
Two presidents of the local funds, and ten members chosen from among the Fellows of the Institute of French Actuaries, or persons well informed on the subject of provident institutions, and nominated by the Minister of Commerce.
The members of the Council, with the exception of those who are members by right of office, are appointed for four years.

ARTICLE 6.—The Local Councils consist of:—
An inspector of finances nominated by the Minister of Commerce;
The treasurer general and the director of assessed taxes of the department at the head quarters of the local fund.
And for each of the departments included in the district:—
Two general councillors appointed by the General Council;
Six members chosen from among the employers or masters who form part of the cantonal committees and nominated by them;
Six members, chosen from among the beneficiaries of the National Fund, who form part of the cantonal committee, and nominated by them. The nominated or eligible members of these councils are elected for four years; they elect their own president.

ARTICLE 7.—The following are admitted as beneficiaries of the National Provident Fund for Workers:—
1. All paid workers of French nationality not attached to a public or private administration which already possesses a pension fund regulated or recognised by the State;
2. Artisans, piece-workers, masters, contractors, or traders, on the condition always that they do not permanently employ more than two workers outside the family;
3. Members of productive co-operative societies;
4. Farmers and *métayers* on condition that they do not employ permanently more than two workers outside the family, and small proprietors working their business themselves with the aid of their families.

ARTICLE 8.—Registration in the National Provident Fund for Workers is not obligatory. The investors (*adherents*) classed under one of the preceding categories are bound to make their declaration of agreement (*declaration d'adhesion*) on proving their qualifications, before the mayor of the locality in which they are resident. They will thereupon receive a certificate of nomination for the provident fund.

ARTICLE 9.—There shall be kept in each town hall (*mairie*) a public register containing the names of all the investors resident in the commune. When any one of them removes, he shall give notice thereof to the mayor, who shall examine his certificate, and he shall have his name registered again in the town hall of his new place of residence.

ARTICLE 10.—The investors in the National Fund must be of the age of 12 years at least; but, up to the age of 16 years, the consent of the father, mother or guardian is necessary. Married women may sign a certificate of enrolment (*acte d'adhesion*) without the consent of their husbands. The payment of the certified annuity cannot fall due within fifty years, except in case of disablement or under conditions within the discretion of the Higher Central Council. The date of the payment of the certified annuity can be fixed in advance, at the pleasure of the beneficiary, or entrance into enjoyment of the pension may be deferred to a later date.

ARTICLE 11.—Payments are made by the investors either directly by means of pension stamps or by money placed in the hands of the collector, or indirectly in the same way by the masters, or by the representative of benefit societies and savings banks. The collector settles each year the account of each certificate entered by him in a special register, inscribing officially the amount of the masters' contributions and the subsidies owed by the State (regulated by Articles 14, 15, 16, 17 below), and he sends a certified copy of this register to the local fund.

ARTICLE 12.—Payments made by the investors are applicable for any form of life assurance (life annuities *constitution de capitaux*. At the same time, assurances payable at death can only be contracted on coming of age.

ARTICLE 13.—Payments from investors cease to be received after they have sufficed to constitute a life annuity of 600 francs at the age of 50 years whatever may be the form of assurance adopted. Every investor may cease to make payments at will without incurring risk of forfeiture. Every annual payment gives an official right (to an amount of the maximum value of 30 francs) to a State subsidy for any investor, and to a contribution from the master for wage-earning investors. These sums being once registered in a certificate become definitely the property of the beneficiary, whether they consist of payments made by the beneficiary, of contributions from the masters, or of State subsidies. Life annuities and capital guaranteed by the sums entered in the certificate cannot be transferred and are not liable to seizure.

ARTICLE 14.—The State subsidy is equal to the amount of the annual payments of the investors, and can only be used for the purchase of a life annuity, by transferred capital (*à capital aliené*) in consequence of this, it cannot exceed 30 francs per annum for each individual, and ceases by law when its total amount reaches the value of 1,000 francs. Notwithstanding, if the investor has employed the whole or part of his payments giving a right to a State subsidy in the purchase of a life assurance, a supplementary subsidy shall be granted to him by the State equal to the third part of this payment and applicable for the same purpose.

ARTICLE 15.—A masters' contribution must be paid to the National Provident Fund for workers by every employer or master who has employed in any form the labour of paid outside workers.

For each of these masters' contributions there is entered in the certificate of the respective beneficiary a sum equal in amount to his annual payments, but which shall not exceed 30 francs per annum.

The masters' contribution is paid every year by the Higher Central Council, in such a way as to insure the normal working of the National Provident Fund. For employers or masters engaged in agriculture, it must not be less than 2 francs or more than 6 francs for 300 days' labour employed. For all other employers or masters it must not be less than 3 francs, or more than 9 francs for 300 days' labour. In case of insufficiency, the amount of the contribution shall be determined by a special law. The masters' contribution, as in the case of the State, can only be used in the purchase of a life annuity by transferred capital.

ARTICLE 16.—Declaration of the numbers of days' labour employed is made each year by the employer or master at the town hall of the commune in which the labour has been employed, the number of days, for one worker, not to be reckoned as more than 300 in one and the same year. These declarations are controlled by a committee of three members, appointed by the Municipal Council. They are entered in a register, a duplicate copy of which is sent to the tax-collector of the commune. Every false declaration is punished by a fine of 16 to 200 francs. In case of repetition of the offence the fine shall be doubled.

ARTICLE 17.—The tax collector recovers the rates due from the employer or masters in the same form and under the same conditions as assessed taxes. He transmits the amount to the local fund through the representative of the treasurer general of the department.

Employers or masters who satisfy the regulations of the following Article are not liable for the aforesaid tax.

ARTICLE 18.—From the masters' rates defined in Articles 15, 16 and 17, are exempt all employers or masters who shall have established in favour of their employés and workers individual pensions which are provided by annual payments, at least equal on the one side to the maximum provided for by Article 15, and on the other, to the payments made by the employés and workers, the limits to compulsory payment, at the same time, being fixed at 30 francs per annum.

Notifications of payment shall be made to the mayor of the commune, and to the tax-collector, who shall collect these payments on behalf of the local fund, as in the case of other contributions from masters.

ARTICLE 19.—A central committee of control is instituted in each canton; it consists of the justice of the peace as president, three employers or masters, and three investors in the National Provident Fund for Workers elected by those persons who are enrolled on the respective communal registers and chosen from

among themselves. These members are appointed for four years.

ARTICLE 20.—The cantonal committees hold the first judgment on all complaints made by masters with regard to the official declaration or calculation of days of work, as well as to the amount of the masters' contributions.

Similarly they receive complaints made by investors relative to the state of their certificates.

ARTICLE 21.—The local councils hold final judgments on appeal, if such be made, on the decisions given by the cantonal committees. Matters for appeal are sent to them by the prefect of the department, notice thereof being given with cause shown by the director of assessed taxes.

ARTICLE 22.—Every employer or master making use of foreign employés or workers shall pay double the maximum masters' contribution fixed by Article 15.

ARTICLE 23.—The amount of the masters' contributions paid on behalf of foreigners shall be paid into the local fund to constitute a sick fund, the purpose of which will be defined in Article 24 following. This fund shall receive also State donations, gifts and legacies, as also the amount of certificates which are unpaid through absence of rightful holders and have fallen into abeyance (*en déshérence*).

ARTICLE 24.—The sick fund shall serve to constitute life pensions in favour of workers who through infirmities, setting aside accidents, in the course of work, have become incapable of providing for their own needs and those of their families, and shall give temporary relief in favour of workers overtaken by sickness. It may also be employed in aiding workers who are sick or burdened with a large family, in the payment of their subscriptions to the National Provident Fund for Workers.

The local councils shall regulate the distribution of this relief.

ARTICLES 25 to 27 complete the bill and present certain temporary provisions for transference or investments of capital.

APPENDIX XIV.

PENSION SCHEME OF M.M. CONSTANS ET ROUVIER.[1]

ARTICLE 1.—*A pension fund for workers* which is attached to the National Fund for Old Age Pensions, regulated by the law of July 20th, 1886, is hereby created for the benefit of workers, employés, *métayers*, or domestic servants, of both sexes, who are French by birth or naturalisation, and whose annual earnings are below 3,000 francs.

ARTICLE 2.—This fund is supported by:—

1. Direct payment from depositors, increased by equal grants from their employers;
2. Payments made by the State, under the conditions stated below.

ARTICLE 3.—The worker is assumed to have the desire to participate in the benefits of the law, unless express declaration to the contrary be made before the mayor of the district in which he lives; a formal acknowledgment of this declaration shall be issued. In the case where this acknowledgment is not laid before him for inspection the master shall withhold from the sums owed by him to the worker in his service a sum of the minimum value of 5 centimes, and of the maximum value of 10 centimes for a day's work, and shall be bound to contribute an equal sum to the savings of his employés.

ARTICLE 4.—The sums thus constituted shall be paid at least quarterly, either into the Pension Fund for Workers, or to some mutual aid society, or pension society, or trade syndicate, or properly authorised provident fund. They shall be entered in a special certificate mutual aid societies, trade syndicates, pension societies, and other provident institutions, shall be empowered either to invest the funds thus received under the conditions stipulated by the law concerning mutual aid societies, or to deposit them in the pension fund for workers.

ARTICLE 5.—Societies other than the authorised mutual aid societies can only confer upon their members the right to participate in the benefits of the present law by virtue of an order from the Minister of the Interior.

ARTICLE 6.—Payments entered in the depositors' certificate shall be increased by the State to the extent of two-thirds of their amount. These additional sums shall be entered in the certificate at least once a year.

ARTICLE 7.—On making a first application for State subsidy (*majoration*), the depositor shall make a formal declaration, certified by his master and the mayor of his commune, that his annual income does not exceed 3,000 francs. At the date of payment of his pension, he is required to show that his income does not exceed 600 francs.

A false declaration shall be punished by a fine of from 50 to 500 francs, and entails the loss of the State subsidy.

ARTICLE 8.—The depositors may contract with the life insurance fund instituted by the law of July 11th, 1868, by means of 30 annual premiums, for a capital varying from 500 to 1,000 francs, equal to the total sums that he would have to contribute to the National Pension Fund.

The State will be responsible for a third of the annual premiums.

ARTICLE 9.—In order that the sums completed by the State may be definitely acquired by the depositor he must have made his payments from the age of twenty-five years.

Interruptions in payments (which may not at most exceed five years) are admitted in cases of necessity (*force majeure*) for depositors who can prove them. The interrupted payments must be taken up and carried on for a length of time equal to the interruptions.

ARTICLE 10.—The life annuities to which the sums inscribed on the worker's certificate give a claim shall be entered in the ledger of the National Fund for Old Age Pensions. The payments arising from the State contribution shall serve for the settlement of the income (*serviront à la constitution de la rente*), but this pension, taken together with the other revenues of the depositor, may not exceed 600 francs.

ARTICLE 11.—Every master employing foreign workers of either sex shall contribute 10 centimes a day for each of these workers.

ARTICLE 12.—A common fund shall be formed with the help—

1. Of gifts and bequests made to the workmen's pension fund;
2. Of the contribution by employers of foreign workers;
3. Of the sums remaining at the disposal of the State in consequence of liquidation of pensions above 600 francs, or on account of depositors having revenues higher than 600 francs;
4. Of sums arising from State payments which were not continued on behalf of depositors in consequence of interruptions in payments;
5. Of payments or arrears of income charged with prescription (*atteints par la prescription*);
6. Of interest on the common funds.

ARTICLE 13.—The proceeds which go annually to the common funds shall be applied:—

1. To complete, up to the half, the annual premiums paid to the life insurance fund by depositors whose funds would have been invested by a mutual aid society or other provident society;
2. To anticipate the liquidation of the pensions of workers, employés, métayers or domestics, whose infirmities prevent them from working up to the total amount of the pension for those whose payments shall have been invested by a mutual

(1) No. 2,576, Chambre des Députés, Session 1893.

aid society or provident society, and up to the amount of the half of the pension for those whose funds shall have been paid to the workmen's pension fund;

3. To give exceptional help to those who are temporarily prevented from making their payments by accidents;
4. To the expenses of working the worker's pension fund.

ARTICLE 14.—Pensions which have been liquidated under the present law are not transferable and cannot be seized.

ARTICLE 15.—Persons indicated in the 1st Article above 25 years and less than forty years of age may profit by the provisions of the preceding Articles on condition of commencing their payments in the year following promulgation of the law.

ARTICLE 16.—Life annuities already paid by the National Pension Fund shall be subsidised to the amount of two-thirds and within the limits indicated in Article 9, provided that they have been purchased by at least ten annual payments.

ARTICLE 17.—Likewise life annuities proceeding from payments already made by depositors or invested by mutual aid societies shall be subsidised to the amount of two-thirds under the same limits and conditions.

ARTICLE 18.—An administrative order shall determine the measures suitable for assuring execution of the present law.

APPENDIX XV.

SOCIALISTIC PROPOSAL for PROVIDING PENSIONS for OLD AGE. Presented to the Chamber by M. CHASSAING, Deputy, and others.[1]

Draft Bill.

ARTICLE I.—A fund is instituted, independent of the budget, to be called "The General Pension Fund for Aged Persons."

ARTICLE II.—All French citizens of either sex, residing on French territory, shall benefit thereby from and after January 1 following the completion of their sixtieth year. Officials, workmen, and employés of the public force and public administrations, who receive pensions from the State or districts, are excepted, as well as those living exclusively on their own incomes, if such pensions or incomes exceed the amount of the pensions stated below.

ARTICLE III.—The pension is paid by twelfths and in advance, at the birthplace of the person entitled thereto. In case such person has not retired to the district in which he was born, he shall receive the pension allowed to the natives of such district, wherever may be his place of residence.

ARTICLE IV.—The rate of pensions is as follows:—

	Francs.
For Paris - - - - - - - -	800
Districts of over 100,000 inhabitants -	700
,, from 50,000 to 100,000 inhabitants - - -	600
,, from 25,000 to 50,000 inhabitants - - -	500
,, from 12,000 to 25,000 inhabitants - - -	400
,, under 12,000 inhabitants -	300

ARTICLE V.—Every year, at the beginning of December, each district shall make known to the central administration of the general pension fund the number of persons, then alive, born in the district, who will have completed their sixtieth year on December 31, so that they receive, before the end of the year, the sum required for the payment from and after January 1, of the first twelfth.

This same sum shall be sent to them every month until the next year.

ARTICLE VI.—At the end of each year, the districts shall return to the central administration the sums remaining in their possession in consequence of death or unclaimed pensions, &c.

ARTICLE VII.—In order to facilitate the execution of the two foregoing Articles, each time death occurs the registrar of the place of decease shall inform the registrar of the place of birth, and mention of the death shall be made in the margin of the birth register.

ARTICLE VIII.—The general pension fund is provided by:—

1. The sums to be derived from the suppression of inheritance in collateral line.
2. Succession duties paid by each heir upon the share coming to him after deduction of charges, and at:—

	Francs.	Francs.	Per Cent.
1.	Up to 10,000	- -	1
2.	From 10,000 to	15,000 - -	2
3.	,, 15,000 ,,	20,000 - -	3
4.	,, 20,000 ,,	25,000 - -	4
5.	,, 25,000 ,,	30,000 - -	5
6.	,, 30,000 ,,	50,000 - -	10
7.	,, 50,000 ,,	100,000 - -	20
8.	,, 100,000 ,,	500,000 - -	40
9.	,, 500,000 ,,	1,000,000 - -	50
10.	Upon sums exceeding 1,000,000 francs.		75

3. Similar duties payable upon donations during the donor's lifetime.
4. Donations and bequests to the pension fund.
5. Sums paid by the State in case the resources of the fund be insufficient.

ARTICLE IX.—At the end of every year the capital not employed by the pension fund shall be handed over to the general budget.

ARTICLE X.—Under any circumstances pensioners shall not be prevented from improving their circumstances by means of insurance or membership of private benefit or pension societies or by work, but they cannot be admitted to public employment in the district of the State.

ARTICLE XI.—Foreigners who have become naturalised French citizens for more than twenty years, may claim under the same conditions as French-born citizens retiring pensions, which shall be paid them by the district in which they obtained naturalisation.

APPENDIX XVI.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY and COMPULSORY INSURANCE against ACCIDENTS.[2]

DRAFT BILL.

SECTION I.

ENTERPRISES SUBJECT TO INSURANCE. ACCIDENTS. COMPENSATION.

ARTICLE I.—All accidents happening by and during the performance of their duties to workmen and employés engaged in building works, factories, manufactures, yards, transport, loading and unloading of merchandise, public warehouses, mines, mining stores, quarries, and generally in all establishments or branches thereof in which explosive materials are manufactured or employed, or where use is made of steam engines or machines worked by elementary power (air, water, steam, gas, hot air, electricity, &c.), or by animals, give right in favour of the sufferer or his representatives to

(1) F. O. Report ,Misc. Ser., No. 258.
(2) From the F. O. Report, Misc Ser.. No. 258, p. 148.

compensation, the importance and character of which are hereinafter determined.

This provision is applicable to workmen and employers engaged in enterprises and works connected with the State, the departments, districts and public establishments.

ARTICLE II.—Employers and workmen whose annual wages exceed 2,000 francs only benefit by the provisions of this law up to that amount.

ARTICLE III.—When the accident causes permanent and absolute incapacity to work, the sufferer is entitled to a life annuity equal to two-thirds of his annual wages.

Blindness, the complete loss of the use of two limbs, or any incurable infirmity which renders the workman unable to work and provide for his maintenance, are considered as permanent and absolute incapacity to work.

ARTICLE IV.—When the accident causes permanent partial incapacity, the compensation allowed to sufferers by the preceding Article is diminished in proportion to the capacity to work still retained.

ARTICLE V.—At the time of the final settlement of the compensation the sufferer may demand that one-fourth of the capital required to constitute a life annuity shall be paid him in cash.

This capital is calculated according to the provisions of Article LXXIII. of the present law.

The sufferer may also demand that the capital required for the constitution of his pension, reduced or not, as provided by the preceding paragraphs, shall be employed, up to one-half at least, for the constitution of a life annuity in favour of his wife.

ARTICLE VI.—When the accident is fatal the compensation shall be composed of—

(1.) The value of 20 days' pay for funeral expenses This sum is not to exceed 100 francs, and shall be paid to the representatives within eight days from the date of death. It may be advanced by the head of the establishment, who shall be reimbursed by the district.

(2.) A pension paid to the persons hereafter indicated from the date of death under the following conditions:—

(*a.*) A life annuity equal to 20 per cent. of the deceased's annual wages in favour of the conjoint survivor, his widow, not divorced, nor against whom judicial separation has been pronounced, on condition that the marriage had been contracted previous to the accident.

(*b.*) For the children or orphans of father or mother up to the full age of 16 years an annuity calculated on the deceased's annual wages at the rate of 15 per cent. if there be one child only, 25 per cent. if there be two, 35 per cent. if there be three, and 40 per cent. if there be four or more children.

The annuity to each of the children, orphans of both parents, shall be 20 per cent. of the wages.

Illegitimate children who have been recognised previous to the accident have right to the same annuities, and come under the same conditions as the legitimate offspring.

The total annuities granted to the children cannot exceed 40 per cent. of the wages in the first case, nor 60 per cent. in the second. Each of the above annuities may be proportionally reduced according to circumstances.

(*c.*) If the deceased be unmarried, or leaves neither widow nor child, a life annuity to such of his ascendants who were supported by him shall be paid at the rate of 10 per cent. of his annual wages on condition that the total amount does not exceed 20 per cent.

Each of these annuities may be proportionally reduced according to circumstances.

ARTICLE VII.—The representatives of a foreign workman who at the time of the accident did not reside in France, are not allowed to claim under the foregoing provisions, unless they can prove that in the country of which the sufferer by the accident was a native, French citizens enjoy such privilege without condition of residence.

ARTICLE VIII.—In all accidents which have caused incapacity to work during more than three days, the head of the establishment shall bear the expense of medical attendance and medicines. He shall also pay during the illness arising from the accident a sum equal to one-half of the sufferer's wages, on condition that such sum does not exceed 3f. 50c. per diem.

The head of the establishment is only responsible for this compensation for a period not exceeding 30 days from the date of the accident. After the thirtieth day, if the sufferer be not in a fit state to return to his work, the temporary indemnity above provided and cost of attendance and medicines shall be at the charge of the district. The head of the establishment shall, however, continue to provide them up to the time when a definite decision has been pronounced by competent jurisdiction, but as an advance only, and at the expense of the district, which shall reimburse him.

This temporary compensation shall be paid from the date of the accident at the usual periods of payment of wages, and at latest every 15 days.

ARTICLE IX.—Heads of establishments, may relieve themselves of the obligation to pay the cost of the illness and temporary compensation during the first 30 days following the accident, if they can prove—

(1.) That they have at their own cost founded special benefit funds, or have associated their workmen to approved or authorised mutual aid societies.

(2.) That such funds or societies are bound to pay, independently of the treatment of the wounded, a compensation equal to one-half of their daily wages, on condition that this indemnity shall not be obliged to exceed 3f. 50c. per diem during the illness, or at least during the first 30 days.

ARTICLE X.—The Articles of Association of private benefit societies mentioned in the foregoing Article shall be drawn up in accordance with the laws relating to mutual aid societies and professional syndicates.

A regulation of the public administrative authorities shall settle the modifications to be made in the existing Articles of Association of mutual aid societies in order to adapt them to the new powers conferred upon them.

SECTION II.

AMOUNT OF WAGES TO BE TAKEN AS A BASIS FOR FIXING ANNUITIES AND COMPENSATION.

ARTICLE XI.—The annual wages to workmen employed in the works during the 12 months preceding the accident shall be understood to include the actual remuneration granted him by the head of the establishment either in money or in kind.

For those who have been employed less than 12 months prior to the accident, the annual wages shall include the actual remuneration they have received since they were engaged, increased by the average pay that workmen of the same class have received during the period required to complete these 12 months.

In industries where the work is intermittent the annual wages are calculated equally upon the active period of work and the earnings of the workmen during the rest of the year.

If a portion of the wages be paid in kind, the valuation shall be estimated according to the customs and tariffs of the place.

In the case of workmen under 18 years of age, or apprentices, the amount of compensation to be paid, as provided by Articles III. to VI., shall not be less than the lowest wages paid to valid workmen of the same class employed on the works.

The temporary compensation and funeral expenses shall in every case be calculated upon the daily pay of the sufferer at the time the accident occurred.

SECTION III.

DECLARATION OF ACCIDENTS.—INQUIRY.

ARTICLE XII.—Every accident causing incapacity to work and happening in establishments of the class mentioned in Article I., shall be declared by the head of the establishment or his representative.

This declaration shall be made within 48 hours of the occurrence to the mayor of the district, who shall draw up an official report in the form to be settled by a Ministerial decree.

The head of the establishment shall annex to this declaration a medical certificate setting forth the state of the injured person, the probable consequences of the accident, and the date when it may be possible to learn the positive result.

A voucher for the declaration and medical certificate shall be immediately given by the mayor to the deponent.

Similar declarations and productions of certificates may be made by the injured man or his representatives.

ARTICLE XIII.—When the injuries appear likely to become fatal or to entail permanent incapacity for work, the mayor shall send copies of the declarations and medical certificate to the justice of the peace for the district.

Within 24 hours of the receipt of such notice the justice of the peace shall institute an inquiry for the purpose of learning—

(1.) The cause, nature, and circumstances of the accident.
(2.) The names of the sufferers.
(3.) The kind of injuries sustained.
(4.) The place where the killed or wounded are to be found.
(5.) The relatives of the sufferers who may present claims for compensation.
(6.) The daily and annual wages of the sufferers.

ARTICLE XIV.—The inquiry shall be held in the manner prescribed by Articles 35, 36, 37 and 39 of the Code of Civil Procedure in the presence of the parties concerned, or those duly and specially convened by registered letters.

The justice of the peace shall visit those injured by the accident, who, by reason of their injuries, cannot possibly attend the inquiry.

When the medical certificate does not appear to him sufficient, the justice of the peace may appoint a doctor to examine the sufferer.

He may also nominate an expert to assist him in the inquiry.

Nevertheless there shall be no need to nominate an expert when the enterprise is under administrative control, or in cases of State enterprises or works submitted to a service of control distinct from the system of management, and in Government establishments in which operations are carried on which the necessities of public safety require to be kept secret.

In these various cases the officials charged with the survey or control shall transmit to the justice of the peace, to be annexed to the official report of the inquiry, a copy of the report which they are required to send to the judicial authorities.

The justice of the peace may claim from those concerned all such further information as may be of use for ascertaining the truth.

ARTICLE XV.—Except in cases of material impossibility, duly set forth in the official report, the inquiry shall be closed with the shortest possible delay, and at latest within 10 days from the date of the accident.

The justice of the peace shall give notice by registered letters to the parties of the inquiry being closed, and of the report being lodged at the registry, where, during five days, they may take cognizance thereof, and obtain unstamped copies.

After the expiration of the said five days the documents relating to the inquiry shall be transmitted to the president of the district civil court.

ARTICLE XVI.—Heads of establishments or their representatives who neglect to comply with the provisions of Article XII., shall be punished by a fine of 16 francs at least, such fine not to exceed 200 francs.

In case of repeated neglect within 12 months, the fine may be increased from 200 francs to 100 francs.

Article 463 of the Civil Code is applicable to offences provided for by the present Article.

SECTION IV.

COMPETENCE, JURISPRUDENCE.

ARTICLE XVII.—Disputes between sufferers from accidents, the heads of establishments, or the district, with regard to temporary compensation, medical attendance, cost of medicines, and funeral expenses shall be decided, without appeal, by the justice of the peace of the district where the accident occurred.

ARTICLE XVIII.—With regard to the other compensations provided for by the present law, within eight days of the reception of the documents relating to the inquiry, the president of the civil tribunal shall convene the injured person or his representatives, the head of the establishment, and the representative of the district. If the parties agree, the amount of the compensation shall be definitely settled by an order of the president, who delivers an act to this effect.

When the parties do not agree, the dispute shall be settled at the chief town of the district, where the accident occurred, by a court composed of three heads of establishments and three workmen assembled before the president of the tribunal or in his absence before the the judge appointed by him.

ARTICLE XIX.—For this purpose, during the month of February in each year a commission, composed of the justice of the peace and the mayors of the cantons, shall draw up two lists containing, the one, the names of all the heads of establishments, partners of firms, directors and managers; the other, the names of all the workmen employed in such establishments.

Only those heads of establishments or workmen who are 30 years of age, able to read and write, residing in the district for at least two years, and possessing their civil and political rights, can figure in the above lists.

ARTICLE XX.—The lists of each canton shall be drawn up in duplicate; one shall be lodged at the registry of the justice of the peace, and the other at the registry of the civil tribunal of the district.

Interested parties may take cognizance of these lists during the 15 days which follow their being lodged at the registry of the justice of the peace.

ARTICLE XXI.—During the month of April a commission, composed of the president of the civil tribunal and four members appointed by the prefect, from among the councillors-general and district councillors, shall draw up district lists of heads of establishments and workmen.

This commission may enter on the lists the names of those omitted from the cantonal lists, and cancel those which have been entered therein by mistake.

The district lists, when definitely settled, shall be signed immediately, and lodged before May 1 at the registry of the civil tribunal.

ARTICLE XXII.—Whenever necessity arises for application to the court of arbitration, the district tribunal shall draw lots at a public meeting from the district lists for 12 jurymen, six among the heads of establishments, six among workmen and employers. Four extra jurymen residing in the chief town of the district are to be appointed in the same manner.

ARTICLE XXIII.—The president of the tribunal, or the judge who takes his place, causes the parties and the jury to be summoned by giving them notice at least five days in advance of the date and place of meeting. The notice to the parties shall contain the names of the jurymen.

ARTICLE XXIV.—Every juryman who, without lawful reason, fails to attend or refuses to take part in the deliberation, incurs a fine of 16 francs to 300 francs. The fine is pronounced by the president of the court of arbitration, who delivers judgment, without appeal, upon the defence put forward by the juryman so fined.

This magistrate also pronounces, without appeal, upon the causes of hindrance put forward by the juryman, and upon all causes of incapacity and exclusion.

In case of insufficient numbers, the president shall select from the lists drawn up, according to Article XXI., the persons, heads of establishments, or workmen required to complete the court of arbitration.

ARTICLE XXV.—The registrar of the civil tribunal shall draw up an official report of the proceedings. He shall call in due order the causes upon which the court of arbitration has to decide.

When the case is called the parties have each the right to three peremptory challenges.

When several parties interested appear in the same case they shall settle among themselves their right to challenge or draw lots to decide which of them shall exercise this right.

If the right to challenge be not exercised, or only partially, the president shall first constitute the court of arbitration from among the regular jurymen, and afterwards among the extra members.

ARTICLE XXVI.—When the court has been formed every juryman shall take oath to fulfil his duties impartially.

The parties or their attorneys may summarily present their observations.

The court of arbitration may hear all those whom it believes capable of throwing light on the subject, and also use any means for information that it deems necessary.

The discussions shall be public. The provisions of Section V. of the Code of Civil Procedure on the order

of public audiences are applicable to the court of arbitration. After the discussion is declared to be closed by the president, the court shall immediately retire to deliberate without quitting the place.

The motives of the decision shall be stated.

ARTICLE XXVII.—The decision of the court of arbitration can only be appealed against by a petition of appeal, and then only for excess of power or violation of the law. The appeal must be made by declaration at the registry of the civil tribunal within 15 days from the date of the decision.

The appeal shall be notified to the parties interested within the week under penalty of forfeiture.

Within the 15 days of notice of appeal the documents shall be sent to the civil chamber of the court of appeal, which shall deliver judgment in the course of the following month.

The judgment, if delivered by default at the expiration of this delay, is not subject to opposition.

When a decision has been reversed, the court shall choose the court of arbitration to which the case is referred, and may select the one which gave decision in the first instance.

ARTICLE XXVIII.—Within the limit of his competency the justice of the peace may, on an express request, after having consulted the list of taxpayers and ascertained the position of the party making the request, order urgent judicial aid, which in such case is by right extended to Acts relating to the executions of the judgment delivered.

The justice of the peace shall order a process server to serve the necessary notices.

ARTICLE XXIX.—A regulation of public administration shall enact the rules relating—

(1.) To the working of the cantonal and district commission.
(2.) To the organisation of such commissions in Paris.
(3.) To the forms to be used before the court of arbitration, the manner in which this court shall deliberate, and how its decisions shall be notified.
(4.) The organisation of judicial aid.
(5.) The indemnity to be allowed to jurymen.

SECTION V.

RESPONSIBILITY.—ACTIONS FOR COMPENSATION.—REVISION.

ARTICLE XXX.—Neither of the compensations settled by the present law may be allowed to the injured persons who intentionally caused the accident.

Judgment should be deferred by the court of arbitration so long as no final decision has been pronounced in the public action brought before or during the claim for compensation.

ARTICLE XXXI.—The court of arbitration has the right, if it be proved by the employer or the district that the accident was due to the serious default of the workman, to diminish or even to refuse any pension whatsoever to the sufferer or his representatives.

ARTICLE XXXII.—When it has been proved that the accident was due to the serious fault of the head of the establishment, or of one of those placed by him in the charge of, or to survey, the works, the court of arbitration may increase the compensation provided under Section I.

The normal compensation is alone carried to the account of the district, or included in its expenditure. The payment of the supplementary compensation shall be recovered from the head of the establishment.

The injured person or his representatives have full right to benefit by judicial aid for the recovery of this compensation, which is guaranteed by the privilege conferred by Article 2. 101 of the Civil Code, and mentioned therein under No. 6.

ARTICLE XXXIII.—Actions to recover the amount of the compensation provided for by the foregoing Articles are limited to one year from the date of the accident.

ARTICLE XXXIV.—The head of the establishment, the injured person or his representatives, and the district may appeal to the court of arbitration during three years from the date of the final decision in order to obtain a modification in case of improvement or aggravation of the state of the sufferer, and, in case of his death, the revision of the compensation originally allowed him.

ARTICLE XXXV.—Sufferers from accidents whose wages exceed 2,000 francs, or their representatives, may make their claim for compensation against the head of the establishment either before the court of arbitration in the manner settled by Article II. or before any other jurisdiction according to the rules of common law.

Nevertheless, when such jurisdiction has been competently applied to they cannot have recourse to another.

Sufferers by accidents whose wages do not exceed 2,000 francs, or their representatives, can only claim from the head of the establishment the compensation provided by the present law.

ARTICLE XXXVI.—The injured person, or his representatives, reserve against the authors of the accident, other than the head of the establishment, a right to compensation for the injuries received according to the rules of common law, but the damages thus obtained shall not accumulate with the compensation provided by Article III. and those which follow it.

In such case the district or heads of establishments who are insured according to the provisions of Article LXXV., Section VIII., are not responsible for the compensation provided by the present law, except in so far as it exceeds the amount of damages to which the authors of the accident are liable, and only for the portion exceeding the amount of such damages.

When the damages thus allowed consist of capital, the life annuity to which this capital corresponds should be calculated in order to settle the portion of the compensation remaining due by the district or the heads of establishments, as provided by Article LXXIII.

SECTION VI.

COMPULSORY MUTUAL INSURANCE.

1. *Districts and Sections.*

ARTICLE XXXVII.—As regards the annual distribution of the duties resulting from the present law, heads of establishments mentioned in Article I. who are not insured on their own account and not members of a syndicate according to Article LXXV., shall be compulsorily united on districts comprising one or more departments.

These districts shall be divided into sections.

The department of the Seine may be divided into several districts.

ARTICLE XXXVIII.—The district shall possess a special administration entrusted to a committee of management. Each section shall be administered by a committee subordinate to the committee of management.

The district may take action at law, and is represented, with regard to third parties and the administration by the president of the committee of management.

ARTICLE XXXIX.—The mission of the committee of management is—

1. To draw up the annual statement of the subordinate establishments and the list of subscriptions to be collected from the heads of establishments in the district.
2. To settle the amount of the bonus which heads of establishments are entitled to receive as provided by Article LXI.
3. To deliberate upon the demands made by sufferers from accidents, or their representatives, and to authorise the representative of the district to accede, if need be, to such demands as are provided by Article XVIII.
4. To cause the suppression of all compensations not due by the district.
5. And generally to look after and watch over all interests of the district.

ARTICLE XL.—The mission of the committee of sections is:—

1. To give its opinion on the classification of the establishments in the section, the regulation of their relative proportion of risk, and upon the reduction of the subscription which heads of establishments may be entitled to:
2. To cancel all compensations paid in the section which are no longer due:
3. To keep the committee of management informed on all points of interest to the district, and to perform the duties delegated to it by this committee.

ARTICLE XLI.—Heads of establishments may vote, and are eligible for the committees of sections if they possess civil and political rights and form part of the section.

Members of the committee of management are elected by the committee of sections, and may only be chosen from among the electors of these committees.

Heads of establishments, insured in the manner provided by Article LXXV., and following, can neither be electors nor are they eligible for the committees of section or districts.

Members of the committees are appointed for four years.

Each committee elects its own president.

Objections relative either to the list of electors or to the election of members of committees are decided upon according to the forms and conditions prescribed by the law of December 8th, 1883, on the election of consular judges.

Members of committees shall receive compensation, the amount of which is fixed, on the proposal of the committee of management, by the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

The committee of management nominates and revokes the secretaries, employés, and inspectors required for the working of the district, and fixes the amount of their salaries and compensations.

It also settles, on the proposal of the committees of sections, the number of the secretaries, employés, and inspectors of the sections and their salaries.

ARTICLE XLII.—A regulation of public administration shall settle :—

1. The respective boundaries of the districts and sections.
2. The seat of the district and of each of the sections.
3. The number of the members of the committees of management and of sections.
4. The industries which, according to the districts, should necessarily be represented on these committees.
5. The regulations relating to the formation of electoral lists, elections, deliberations, and the working and dissolution of committees.

2. *Higher Councils on Accidents resulting from Labour.*

ARTICLE XLIII.—A Higher Council on Accidents resulting from Labour is instituted by and under the presidency of the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

This council is composed of two senators, two deputies, two Councillors of State, the Director-General of the deposit and lodgment office, and of 10 persons chosen equally from among the members of the Institute of Actuaries, and such others as are well-known for their competency in matters relating to accidents from labour.

The Minister nominates the members of the Higher Council and chooses from among them a vice president; he also appoints the secretary.

The Higher Council may call upon the directors of different State departments to take part in its deliberations.

A regulation of public administration shall fix the rules relating to the working of the Higher Council.

ARTICLE XLIV.—The Higher Council shall draw up within six months of the promulgation of the law a list, in which shall be enumerated all the industries and professions subject to its provisions. It shall set forth the series of the relative proportions of risks to which each industry or profession is liable according to the conditions under which they are carried on, which conditions should be stated in the said list.

To each class of industry at least three graduated proportions shall correspond.

The list shall be approved and made executory by decree, and shall be revised every three years.

In case of omission of an industry the parties interested may apply at all times to the Minister to obtain its insertion, and it shall be added, if need be, to the general list by means of a decree to that effect.

ARTICLE XLV.—The Higher Council advises upon all matters submitted to it by the Minister.

It must be consulted upon all the regulations, decrees, and Ministerial decisions delivered with regard to the application of the present law.

3. *Distribution of Compensation; Drawing up of Lists; Objections.*

ARTICLE XLVI.—The sum to be distributed each year according to district comprises :—

1. The capital required to constitute the incomes and pensions entered on the books during the preceding year:
2. The sums charged during the same period to the account of the district for funeral expenses, temporary compensation, and cost of administration and collection.
3. Additional capital for a reserve fund, the amount of which shall be settled annually by the committee of management and shall not exceed one fourth of the sum distributed during the preceding year.

ARTICLE XLVII.—For this purpose the committee of management shall draw up every year for each parish of the district, according to notice and proposal of the committee of sections, a list of names according to the heads of all the establishments under the control of the parish or commune, with particulars of their classification, their relative proportion of risk, and, if need be, the reduction of subscription allowed to each of them.

The denomination of every establishment on the list according to the character of the business carried on there must necessarily be taken from the decree of classification provided by Article XLIV.

The committee of management decides which of the various proportions of risk specified by the decree shall be assigned to each respective establishment.

If several industries having a series of different proportions on the general list are carried on in the same establishment each of these industries requires a distinct classification with the assignment of a special proportion to each.

ARTICLE XLVIII.—All heads of establishments who have carried on a trade or profession classified during the preceding year, and who have not fulfilled the provisions of Article LXXV., and following, should be entered on the list each year.

At the end of the list drawn up for each parish or commune shall be entered the names of all those heads of establishments who have declared their desire to benefit by the provisions under Section VIII.

ARTICLE XLIX.—The list is addressed to the mayor of the commune during the first fortnight of December, to be placed at the disposal of interested parties during 10 consecutive days.

Notice thereof shall be given by posters and publication at the places set apart for this purpose.

A special sheet, previously marked and initialed by the mayor, shall, during such period, be lodged at the town hall for the reception of objections to which the list may give rise.

Each interested party may protest against the classification of his establishment and the proportion of risk attributed to him. Anyone may call attention to the establishments omitted.

ARTICLE L.—At the expiration of the delay fixed by the preceding Article the mayor shall send the list, together with the sheet of observations, to the committee of the section, which shall transmit it with its own decisions to the committee of management.

If this committee be of opinion that it is right to act upon the observations transmitted, it shall rectify the list.

Its decision is final as far as regards the settlement of the co-efficient of risk.

ARTICLE LI.—During the month of January every head of establishment so classified shall remit to the mayor of the district, who shall give an acknowledgment for the same, a declaration stating the number of workmen and employés engaged by him during the preceding year, the number of working days, and the total wages paid to them.

These declarations, collected by the committee of section, shall be transmitted by its means, and with its opinion to the district committee.

They may be rectified by the committee of management, which settles *ex-officio* the amount of wages in the establishments for which no declaration has been presented within the time allowed.

ARTICLE LII.—When an establishment comprises several industries or professions, with separate proportions of risk, the declaration as to the amount of wages should be made separately for each of them.

ARTICLE LIII.—The surveyor of direct taxes shall send each year to the committee of management a copy of the list of trade licences in each district.

They shall also furnish to these committees or their agents all useful information at their disposal.

ARTICLE LIV.—The annual distribution is made between each classified industry, or, if required, between each separate trade forming part of the same

classified establishment in proportion to the product of its share of risk and the amount of wages of its workmen and employés.

ARTICLE LV.—The districts may relieve themselves of the obligation to pay to workmen and employés temporary compensation and costs of illness beyond the thirtieth day by means of subscriptions deposited for this purpose with private benefit funds or mutual aid societies in the manner prescribed by Articles IX. and X.

ARTICLE LVI.—The committee of management shall draw up a list for each parish or commune. This list is made executory by the prefect of each department; it shall be published, and the amounts recovered in the same way as direct taxes.

ARTICLE LVII.—Heads of establishments whose names were omitted from the original roll, who were engaged in any subordinate business or profession prior to January 1 of the year the roll was issued shall be assessed by means of supplementary rolls, which may be published at any time in the course of the year.

The assessment of these heads of establishments is settled in proportion to the share of risk and the amount of wages assigned to them by the committee of management at the rate of distribution resulting from the original roll.

ARTICLE LVIII.—Interested parties may within a delay of three months from the date of the publication of the roll protest against the classification assigned to their establishment, and the amount at which they are assessed.

Such claims are decided upon after notice by the committee of direction by the prefectoral council of the department in which the seat of the district is placed.

The prefectoral council is bound in its decisions to conform itself to the general classification of the industries mentioned in Article XLIV., and to the coefficient fixed by the committee of management in accordance with Articles XLVII. and L. Nevertheless, in cases where the proportions of risk assigned to an establishment by the committee of management is not of the kind applicable by virtue of the decree of classification to establishments of this class, the prefectoral council fixes the co-efficient *ex-officio*.

ARTICLE LIX.—In default of the distributions of assessment by the committee of management within the first four months of the year, the Minister of Commerce and Industry designates the persons who should proceed *ex-officio* with such distribution, in accordance with the foregoing regulations.

4. *Fines.*

ARTICLE LX.—Every false declaration of the number of workmen shall be punished by a fine of 10 francs for each workman undeclared.

Moreover, all delays in making the declarations, every false declaration relative to the number of workmen and employés, the amount of their wages or the period during which the business has been carried on, shall be punished by a fine of 16 francs to 200 francs. In cases of offences repeated within five years the courts of justice may increase the fine up to 1,000 francs.

5. *Bonuses.*

ARTICLE LXI.—The following persons are allowed to benefit by a reduction of assessment up to 30 per cent.

1. Heads of establishments under Government inspection who produce annually a certificate given by the board of control or inspection, stating that they have taken steps considered necessary for the prevention of accidents.
2. Heads of all other establishments who produce annually a similar certificate given to them by the engineers specially delegated for this purpose.

The amount of bonuses granted by virtue of the foregoing paragraph is borne by the other heads of establishments in the district and increases to that extent the amount they have to subscribe.

A Government order shall decide the conditions under which the present article is applicable.

SECTION VII.

NATIONAL INSURANCE FUND; PAYMENT AND CLASS OF COMPENSATION.

ARTICLE LXII.—The insurance fund against accidents founded by virtue of the Law of July 11, 1868, takes the title of "The National Fund for Insurance against Accidents."

ARTICLE LXIII.—The payment of incomes and pensions due by virtue of the present law is effected at Paris by the National Insurance Fund, and in the provinces through the receivers of the funds and the collectors.

These incomes and pensions are entered upon presentation of the copy of the decision of the court of arbitration, on the order of the president stating the terms agreed upon between the parties.

ARTICLE LXIV.—Funeral expenses, temporary compensations, cost of administration, and, generally, all other expenses at the cost of the district, are reimbursed or paid on presentation of orders from the representative of the district, issued in accordance with the decisions of the committee of management or on communication of the judgment of the justice of the peace.

ARTICLE LXV.—The incomes and temporary compensations granted to those injured by accidents, or their representatives, are not alienable, and cannot be seized or attached.

ARTICLE LXVI.—After three years of unclaimed arrears these incomes are struck off the books of the National Fund, and their re-establishment gives no ground for claim of any kind for arrears prior to the demand for re-inscription.

ARTICLE LXVII.—The right of obtaining or the enjoyment of such incomes shall be suspended by virtue of a criminal sentence and during the term of the penalty.

ARTICLE LXVIII.—The subscriptions collected by virtue of Article XLVI. and following, and the amount produced by fines inflicted under the present law, shall be paid into the National Fund, and carried to the special account of each district.

ARTICLE LXIX.—The following items shall be carried to the account of the reserve fund of the district:

1. The subscriptions which cannot be recovered;
2. The amount of discharges and reductions;
3. The interest on advances by the National Fund;
4. The compensation to sworn members of the Court of Arbitration, and the costs of organisation of such courts incumbent upon the district;
5. The sums arising from the reduction or increase of the compensation according to the conditions provided by Article XXXIV.:
6. The subscriptions recovered by virtue of the supplementary rolls;
7. The amount produced by the fines inflicted by application of the present law;
8. The arrears of incomes unclaimed during three years, according to Article LXVI., and those on incomes suspended by the application of Article LXVII.

ARTICLE LXX.—The advances required for the due working of the fund shall be made by the Deposit and Consignments Fund at a rate to be fixed by decree issued by the Minister of Commerce and Industry and the Minister of Finance.

During the first year the National Fund shall operate by means of capital belonging to the fund for insurance against accidents founded by the Law of July 11, 1868.

ARTICLE LXXI.—The capital of the fund shall be employed in the same manner as that of the National Pension Fund.

ARTICLE LXXII.—In each department an account of the sums paid or collected for the National Fund shall be kept at the office of the Paymaster-General.

ARTICLE LXXIII.—Within six months of the promulgation of the present law the National Fund shall establish the tables required for the constitution of the incomes to be paid by it to the injured, their widows, children, or other relatives. These tables shall comprise all ages from the date of birth up to the age of 80 years. Pensions in favour of persons over 80 years of age shall be paid according to rates fixed for that age.

These tables shall be revised at least every five years.

ARTICLE LXXIV.—A Government order shall decide the conditions of the organisation and working of the National Fund and the publicity to be given to its operations.

SECTION VIII.

INDIVIDUAL AND SYNDICAL INSURANCES; SPECIAL GUARANTEES.

ARTICLE LXXV.—Heads of establishments, who desire, either individually or in the form of a syndicate, to remain their own insurers shall make a declaration before December 1 every year to the prefect of their department, and to the committee of management of their district. They shall at the same time prove the deposit with the National Fund of the guarantee to which they are subjected.

The articles of association of the syndicates shall be approved by the Minister of Commerce and Industry, after notice from the Council of State.

ARTICLE LXXVI.— A Government order shall settle the basis and nature of the guarantee, taking into account the dangers of the industry, the number of workmen, the relative proportion of risk, and the hours of labour.

It shall set forth the rules according to which heads of establishments insured, either individually or as a syndicate, shall contribute to the cost of organisation and working of the Court of Arbitration.

It shall fix the procedure to be followed for the information of such syndicates.

ARTICLE LXXVII.—The amount of the interest on the guarantees shall be settled by the Minister of Commerce on the motion of the Director-General of the Deposit and Lodgment Fund.

ARTICLE LXXVIII.—Compensation due in respect of accidents provided for by the present law, shall in every case be decided in accordance with the foregoing regulations. Disputes arising between the persons injured, or their representatives, and the heads of establishments, shall be settled in the manner prescribed by Article XVII. and following.

The pensions allowed to the sufferers or their representatives shall be paid by the National Insurance Fund.

The capital required for the constitution of these pensions shall be taken from the guarantee fund, and shall be replaced within 15 days from the date of application to the National Fund.

If the syndicates or heads of establishments neglect to conform to this condition, the latter, whether they be syndicated or not, shall be officially subjected to the provisions of Section VI. of the present law, from and after the date when the security is no longer adequate.

Members of syndicates remain jointly and severally responsible toward the National Fund for the amounts advanced by it for the purchase of pensions, not entirely covered by the guarantee deposited.

ARTICLE LXXIX.—Sufferers by accidents, or their representatives, have a privileged claim according to the terms of Article 2,102 of the Civil Code upon securities lodged as a guarantee.

SECTION IX.

GENERAL RULES.

ARTICLE LXXX.—The official reports, certificates, notarial acts, writs, judgments, and other legal documents made or delivered by virtue of and for the execution of the present law shall be delivered without fee, and stamped and registered gratis whenever the formality of registration is deemed necessary.

ARTICLE LXXXI.—Every agreement contrary to the present law is, as such, null and void.

ARTICLE LXXXII.—The present law shall take effect from and after January 1 of the year following its promulgation.

ARTICLE LXXXIII.—Heads of establishments are bound under penalty of a fine of 16 francs to 100 francs to post up in every workshop a copy of the present law and the decree of classification prescribed by Article XLIV.

ARTICLE LXXXIV.—No derogation whatever is made with respect to the laws, ordinances, and regulations concerning pensions to workmen, apprentices, and labourers employed in the arsenals and navy yards, and those workmen regularly inscribed in manufactories of arms depending on the War Department.

A special law shall decide the consequences of accidents happening to sailors and fishermen in the exercise of their occupation.

APPENDIX XVII.

LAW relating to FREE MEDICAL AID.[1]

The Senate and the Chamber of Deputies have adopted, the President of the Republic promulgates the following law:—

PART I.

ORGANISATION OF MEDICAL AID.

ARTICLE 1.—Every sick French person without means of subsistence may receive free medical aid in his own home from the commune, department or the State, according to his relief domicile, or if this cannot be satisfactorily done, then in a hospital. Women lying-in are regarded as sick. Foreign sick persons without means are regarded as French in all cases in which the Government shall have passed a treaty of reciprocal assistance with their country.

ARTICLE 2.—The commune, department or the State may always call for help, if occasion arises, either from each other or other persons, societies or bodies charged with provision of medical aid to the indigent sick, notably from the members of the family of the person claiming relief, as indicated in Articles 205 to 207 and 212 of the Civil Code.

ARTICLE 3.—Every commune is attached, for the purpose of treatment of the sick persons belonging to it, to one or more of the nearest hospitals.

In thoses cases in which it is impossible to give adequate treatment to a sick person in his home the doctor delivers, a certificate of admission to the hospital. This certificate should be countersigned by the president of the board of aid (*bureau d'assistance*) or his representative.

The hospital may not claim back the expenses of the day except on presentation of the above-mentioned certificate.

ARTICLE 4.—In each department a service of medical aid for the sick poor is established under authority of the prefect and according to the conditions laid down by the present law. The general council deliberates, in accordance with the conditions provided by Article 48 of the law of August 10, 1871: (1) upon the organisation of medical aid, the determination as to sites and foundation of the hospitals to which each commune or syndicate of communes is attached; (2) upon the share of the expense to fall on the communes and the department.

ARTICLE 5.—In default of deliberation by the general council upon the matters mentioned in the preceding Article, or in case of suspension of the deliberation in execution of Article 49 of the law of August 10, 1871, the regulation of the service may be provided for by a decree given in the form of an administrative order.

PART II.

RELIEF DOMICILE.

ARTICLE 6.—Relief domicile is acquired:

(1.) By habitual residence during one year in a commune after majority is attained.

(2.) By birth (*filiation*). A child has the same relief domicile as its father. If the mother has survived the father, or if the child is illegitimate and recognised only by the mother, it has the domicile of its mother. In case of separation or divorce of its parents a legitimate child shares the domicile of the parent who has the care of its education.

[1] Journal Officiel, July 18, 1893.

(3.) By marriage. The wife from the day of her marriage acquires the relief domicile of her husband. Widows and wives divorced or separated from their husbands retain the relief domicile that they had before the dissolution of the marriage or the judgment of separation.

In cases not mentioned in the present Article the relief domicile is the place of birth up to the attainment of majority.

ARTICLE 7.—Relief domicile is lost:—

(1.) By an uninterrupted absence of one year after majority is attained.

(2.) By acquisition of a new relief domicile. If the absence is occasioned by circumstances excluding all liberty in choice of residence or by necessity of treatment in a hospital at some distance from the habitual residence of the invalid, the period of one year shall be reckoned from the day when these circumstances cease to exist.

ARTICLE 8.—In default of a communal relief domicile the duty of administering medical aid falls upon the department in which the sick person without means has acquired his relief domicile.

When the sick person has neither a communal nor departmental relief domicile, the cost of medical aid falls upon the State.

ARTICLE 9.—Charity children have their domicile in the department which has the charge of them, up till the time when they acquire another relief domicile.

PART III.

BOARD AND ROLL OF AID.

ARTICLE 10.—In each commune a board of aid (*bureau d'assistance*) provides a service of medical aid.

The administrative committee of the board of aid is formed from the administrative committees of the charity hospice and board of charity (*bureau de bienfaisance*) or by the latter only when there is no hospice in the commune.

In default of a hospice or board of charity the board of aid is governed by the law of May 21, 1873 (Articles 1 to 5), modified by the law of August 5, 1879, and possesses, in addition to the attributes bestowed by the present law, all the attributes which appertain to a board of charity.

ARTICLE 11.—The president of the board of aid has the right to accept gifts and bequests as a trustee (*à titre conservatoire*) and to raise every question in the transfer, without special authorisation (*former . . . toute demande en délivrance*).

The decree of the President of the Republic or the resolution of the prefect which follow afterwards take effect from the day of this acceptation.

The board of aid is legally represented (*répresenté en justice et dans tous les actes de la vie civile*) by one of its members elected by his colleagues for this purpose at the beginning of every year.

Administration of the foundations, gifts and bequests which have been made to the poor or to the communes in favour of medical aid, devolves upon the board of aid.

The boards of aid are subject to the regulations which apply to the administration and book-keeping of the hospices, in so far as they have nothing in them contrary to the present law.

ARTICLE 12.—The administrative committee of the board of aid meets at least four times a year at the instance of its president.

One month before the first ordinary meeting of the municipal council this committee prepares a list of the persons holding relief domicile within the commune, who in case of sickness should be admitted to medical aid and its revises this list one month before each of the other three sessions.

The relief doctor or a delegate of the doctor's, the municipal collector and one of the assessors chosen by the sub-prefect may take a consultative part in the proceedings.

ARTICLE 13.—The medical aid roll should include by name all those who are admitted to relief even when they are members of one family.

ARTICLE 14.—The roll is checked by the Municipal Council which deliberates upon it in private; it is deposited with the secretary to the *mairie*. The mayor gives notice of this deposit in the usual manner.

ARTICLE 15.—A copy of the roll and the official report stating the accomplishment of the formalities prescribed by the preceding Article is sent at the same time to the sub-prefect of the district (*arrondissement*). If the prefect deems that the formalities prescribed by the law have not been observed he refers the operations, within eight days, to the council of the prefecture which takes a decision within eight days and fixes, if necessary, the time within which the annulled operations shall be repaired.

ARTICLE 16.—Within 20 days from the time of depositing the roll, claims for inscription or erasure should be made by any inhabitant or ratepayer of the commune.

ARTICLE 17.—A cantonal committee decides without appeal upon these claims, the mayor concurring or being duly appealed to. This committee is composed of the sub-prefect of the district, of the councillor general, of a councillor of the district in order of nomination, and of the justice of the peace for the canton. The sub-prefect or, in his default, the justice of the peace, presides over this committee.

ARTICLE 18.—The president of the commitee, within eight days, gives notice to the sub-prefect and the mayor of the decisions as to additions or withdrawals effected on the roll.

ARTICLE 19.—In urgent cases between two sessions, the board of aid may provisionally, and under the conditions in Article 12, admit a sick person not inscribed on the list to relief.

When it is impossible to call the board of aid together in time, admission may be pronounced by the mayor, who gives a private account of the matter to the municipal council at its next sitting.

ARTICLE 20.—In case of accident or acute disease, medical aid to persons not having relief domicile in the commune where the accident or illness occurred devolves upon the commune, under the conditions defined in Article 21, if no hospital exists in the commune. Admission of these sick persons to medical aid is pronounced by the mayor, who gives notice of it immediately to the prefect and gives a private account of the matter to the Municipal Council at its next sitting.

The prefect acknowledges receipts of the notice and decides within 10 days on the admission to relief.

ARTICLE 21.—The expenses advanced by the commune in virtue of the preceding Article, except the first 10 days of treatment, are re-imbursed by the department according to a regular statement prepared conformably to a tariff fixed by the general council. The department which has afforded aid can call for assistance from certain people. If the person aided has his relief domicile in another department the claim is against that department, which may in turn exercise its claim for assistance from others.

ARTICLE 22.—The inscription on the roll, provided in Article 12, continues to hold good during one year, in respect of the third (*au regard des tiers*) from the day on which the person inscribed has left the commune, saving only the right of the commune to prove that this person is no longer in need of free medical aid.

ARTICLE 23.—The prefect pronounces admission to relief of medical aid in the case of sick persons without means and deprived of communal relief domicile. The prefect is bound at the beginning of each month to send the list of names of sick persons so admitted at the end of each month to the departmental committee or to the Minister of the Interior, according as it falls upon the department or the State.

PART IV.

HOSPITAL RELIEF.

ARTICLE 24.—The charge per diem for sick persons placed in hospitals at the expense of the communes, of the departments or the State is regulated by a resolution of the prefect after a proposal by the administrative committees of these establishments and after an opinion has been expressed by the general council of the department, with the provision that a charge per diem may not be imposed which is less than the average determined during five preceding years.

ARTICLE 25.—Rights arising out of founder's deeds (*actes de fondations*), orders for amalgamation (*édits*

l'amálgamation), or special agreements (*contractions particulières*) are and remain reserved. There is no departure from Article 1 of the law of August 7th, 1851.

All beds not occupied under the provisions of the previous paragraph, or not considered necessary for the use of old people or incurables, of soldiers, charity children or maternity cases, are devoted to the service of medical aid.

Part V.

Expenses, Ways and Means.

Article 26.—Expenses for the service of medical aid are divided into ordinary and extraordinary.

The first include:—

1. Fees for doctors, surgeons and midwives in the service of home aid;
2. Medicaments and instruments;
3. Hospital expenses.

These are obligatory. They are borne by the communes, the department and the State, according to the rules established in Articles 27 to 29.

Extraordinary expenses include the cost of enlarging and constructing hospitals. The State contributes to these expenses by subventions determined by the credits voted. Each year a sum to this effect is inscribed in the budget.

Article 27.—The communes, the special and ordinary resources of which are insufficient to cover the costs of this service, are authorised to vote certain additions (*centimes additionels*) to the four direct rates, or to the octroi duties in order to obtain the complement for necessary resources. The octroi duties voted in virtue of the preceding paragraph are submitted for the approval of the competent authority according to the dispositions of Article 137 of the law of April 5th, 1884. . . .[1]

Article 28.—The department, in addition to the expenses falling upon them by the preceding Articles, are bound to grant subventions to the communes which are compelled to have recourse to increased rates.[1] . . .

Article 29.—The State subscribes to departmental expenses for medical aid, by subventions, which may vary from 10 to 70 per cent. of the total expenses covered by the additional centimes.[1] . . .

The State is moreover charged:—

(1.) With the expenses occasioned by the treatment of sick persons without relief domicile.

(2.) The expenses of administration relative to the execution of the present law.

Part VI.

General Provisions.

Article 30.—The communes, departments, boards of charity and hospitals, possessing properties through foundations, the revenue of which is devoted by the founder to medical aid for sick persons in their homes, are bound to contribute to the expenses of medical aid up to the amount of the said revenue, excepting for what has been said in Article 25.

Article 31.—All the collections relative to the service of medical aid are made through the local tax gatherers (*comme en matière de contributions directes*). All the receipts of the boards of aid for which the laws and regulations have not provided a special mode of collection are effected through forms prepared by the president. These take effect (*sont exécutoires*) after they have been overlooked (*visés*) by the prefect or sub-prefect. Oppositions put in are judged as summary affairs when the dispute is as to the competence of the ordinary tribunals, and the board may put in a defence without authorisation of the Council of the Prefecture.

Article 32.—The certificates, signatures, judgments, contracts, receipts, and other acts accomplished in virtue of the present law, and relating exclusively to the service of medical aid are exempt from stamp duties, and registered freely without prejudice to the benefit of the law of January 22nd, 1851, on judicial aid.

Article 33.—All disputes relating to execution of the law, whether as to the deliberation of the general council in virtue of Article 4, or the decree in virtue of Article 5, or in case of claims of the administrative commissions relating to the execution of the resolution of the prefect provided for in Article 24, are brought before the council of prefecture of the department in which the plaintiff resides, or in case of appeal before the council of State.

Proceedings before the council of State in the case provided in the preceding paragraph can dispense with intervention of an advocate.

Article 34.—The doctors in the service of medical aid must be considered as ineligible for the general council or the council of the arrondissement on account of their payment through the departmental estimates.

Article 35.—The communes or syndicates of communes which prove a complete fulfilment of their duty of aid to sick persons may be authorised to have a special organisation by a special decision of the Minister of the Interior, given after consultation with the Higher Council of Public Relief.

Article 36.—The provisions of the decree of 24 *vendémiaire an II.* are repealed in so far as they are contrary to the present law.

Executed at Paris, July 15th, 1893.

Carnot,

President of the Republic.

President of the Council and Minister of the Interior,

Ch. Dupuy.

Keeper of the Seals and Minister of Justice,

E. Guèrin.

Minister of Finance,

P. Peytral.

APPENDIX XVIII.

Strikes in 1892.

By the courtesy of the director of the "Office du Travail," advance proof sheets have been received of the forthcoming work on Strikes in 1892. One or two of the more interesting among them, of which no details could hitherto be procured, can thus be treated here.

Strike of workwomen in sugar refineries, Paris.

The first selected is the strike of September 9th to 29th, among the workwomen (breakers of sugar) in the refinery of Messieurs Sommier et Cie., Paris.

On September 8th a notice was posted up in the works to the effect that from the 19th the pieceworkers in the breaking department would be paid 50 centimes the 100 kilogrammes of sugar broken, instead of the 60 centimes which they had earned on each quintal of sugar placed in the boxes and between the boards. This decision really only affected the workwomen employed at the boards. The boxes contained 60 kilogrammes and the boards from ten, or five, down to one kilogramme; but hitherto the boxes were counted as 50 kilogrammes instead of 60, while in the case of the boards the weights were more exact. When deciding to lower the rate M. Sommier undertook to pay the boxes at their real weight, that is, the workwomen, instead of receiving 60 centimes for 120 kilogrammes, received 50 centimes for 100 kilogrammes.

The breakers of sugar decided that they would not accept the new rate, and on the 9th 90 of them ceased work. The other workwomen, earning by time-work from 3 francs to 3.25 a day in other departments,

[1] A reference to schedules follows here. *See* "Journal Officiel," July 18, 1893.

joined, and so brought up the number of strikers to 160. The situation remained unchanged until September 14, on which day M. Sommier received a deputation of workwomen who demanded a restoration of the old rate. No agreement, however, was arrived at, as the strikers refused a slight concession (the substitution of 53 centimes for 50) offered by the employer.

The same day a meeting was held at the Labour Exchange and a general strike in the trade was determined on; a subscription list was opened to provide necessary funds. On the 15th 35 workwomen left the breaking department in the works of MM. Lucas and Descambre. Their example was followed next day by 250 workwomen of the firm Lebaudy, 110 (out of 120) in the firm François, and by 24 (out of 30) workwomen in the French sawyards (*scierie française*). This result was accompanied or preceded by several interferences with freedom of labour which, however, were quickly repressed. At a meeting of the Labour Exchange on the 16th the following resolutions were taken:—"The "workwomen (*casseuses de sucre*) in the firms of "Lebaudy, Sommier et Cie., Lucas et Descambre, and "François, undertake not to begin work until they "have obtained: (1) at the works Lebaudy, 80 cen-"times per 100 kilos.; suppression of fines; Saturday "payment of wages; payment by the employer and "not by the employed of the weighers and tarers; a "rise of ten centimes an hour for the time-workers. "(2) At the works of Sommier and Company: main-"tenance of the rate of 60 centimes per 100 kilos." At the same time an appeal was addressed to all the workwomen in the refineries to join a syndicate, in process of formation, as soon as possible.

On September 17th, however, 60 workwomen returned to work at the refinery of Lebaudy, 50 at the works of François and all the sugar breakers at the works of Lucas and Descambre, so abandoning the struggle.

On the 19th a fresh deputation to the firm of Sommier asked for a return to the old rate. The reply was that this was impossible, but that the works were open to all who would return to work. A meeting in the large hall of the Labour Exchange next day adopted the following resolution:—"The workmen and workwomen "of the Sommier refinery, in general assembly on "September 20, in view of the revolting attitude of "the exploiter Sommier, decide to continue the strike "more firmly than ever, and declare that the readiness "of the syndicates at the Labour Exchange to subscribe "subsidies offer them every encouragement in main-"taining their claims."

A small number of the strikers attempted a third approach to M. Sommier on September 26. He was desirous of ending the strike, renewed his offer of September 14, promising 53 centimes per 100 kilos. of sugar broken. Seeing that they could obtain no better conditions, the workwomen informed M. Sommier on the 27th that work would be resumed the following day. This they did, but a new incident arose; the drawers and pushers refused to work except at the same rate as the breakers. To avoid prolongation of the strike M. Sommier, consented to grant this demand, and on the 29th work was resumed by all.

Strikes among cabdrivers.

Three strikes among cab-drivers (*cochers de fiacre*) took place during 1892 in Paris:—

—	Dates.	Firms affected.	No. of Strikers.	Claims of Strikers.	Results for Strikers.
1	Jan. 3 to Mar. 7.	One -	1,800	Reduction of hire from 22 to 15 francs.	Defeat.
	Mar. 26 to Ap. 6.	Eight -	600	Daily wage of 5 francs, and suppression of hire.	Defeat.
3	Aug. 16 to 19.	Eight -	900	Reduction of hire, and application of the horo-kilometric measure.	Defeat.

The first of these, which is chosen for illustration as the longest and most interesting, arose among the employés of the *Compagnie Urbaine* and began at the depôt Batignolles. An unsigned notice was distributed among the cab-drivers, complaining of a rise in hire from 20 to 22 francs, which was announced, they said, in spite of an attempt to arrange the matter by a deputation to the "council of administration," and calling upon the men to come out on strike with a demand for a fixed daily rate of 15 francs. Several depôts were deserted in response to this at once, and by January 4th the strike was universal. Further demands were put in: (1) that the cabs should not be at the charge of the drivers on the days when they did not leave the yards, (2) that delegates should be neither threatened nor dismissed.

M. Lamonta, president of the council, replied that the latter points would be considered, and that while the company had hitherto found it quite impossible to establish a fixed daily rate, they were disposed to show as much consideration as possible in establishing an average.

A meeting was held at once, January 4th, at the Labour Exchange, at which it was resolved to continue the strike until all claims were satisfied. A subscription list was opened, and from that date until the close of the strike not less than 3,000 francs in all were received.

On the 12th a deputation of cab-drivers was received by the company. The former then declared that they were ready to re-commence work if the company would allow them to work at choice, according to an average or a market rate (*soit à la moyenne, soit à la feuille*). The company at once agreed, but no cabs were taken out of the yard on the following day. At a meeting at the Labour Exchange the action of the deputation was repudiated, and continuation of the strike voted. On the 14th, offers of conciliation were sent to M. Lamonta through the Municipal Council of Paris. He replied that he would meet the latter if the following were associated with him in consultation, as the matters in question were vital to the whole trade:—

M. le President de la Compagnie générale des voitures;

M. le President de la Compagnie l'Abeille;

The principal cab-owners and the president of their syndical chamber.

This reply was taken as a refusal of mediation. On the 19th it was decided to continue the strike with the utmost energy (*dernière énergie*), and the Municipal Council voted a credit of 10,000 francs to the strikers. On their part the "Urbaine" company were supported by all the greater cab-owners. No important incident took place until February 12th, when a proposal for arbitration was sent to M. Lamonta, the drivers suggesting M. Mesureur, deputy for the Seine, as their representative. This proposal was rejected. On February 16th the Marquis de Morès explained to a mass meeting of drivers the details of a scheme, whereby (with the aid of a loan from the bank of France) they might become co-proprietors of the plant of the company. A number of other orators addressed the meeting, which eventually adopted a long series of resolutions; of these the most practical was that the drivers were "compelled to carry the strike on in its natural course "(*marche normale*) until the prince financier Lamonta "submitted or resigned (*se soumette ou se démette*)." Protests were entered against the action of the police in interfering with a strike which had been carried on in a "most calm and dignified" manner. It should be noted in passing, in connection with this contention, that one hundred actions (*procès-verbaux*) for interference with freedom of labour were brought against strikers, and that the greater number of arrests were followed by sentences varying from 15 days to six months' imprisonment.

Whether the arrests had any effect or not, it was from February 18th that cabs belonging to the Urbaine company began to be seen in the streets again. On March 2nd a fresh attempt at conciliation was unsuccessfully made, followed by fresh declarations of "solidarité" and "fraternité" on the part of the drivers. On March 4 three delegates from the drivers' syndicate were received by M. Lamonta, who refused their proposals. A last meeting of the drivers took place on the 5th. It was resolved that "while closing "the strike . . . the remaining strikers, certain

" that they had fulfilled their whole duty . . . would " continue to relieve their comrades languishing in " prisons for no worse crime than that of defending a " just cause against capitalist and police tyranny . . . " and would organise a strike fund for the future " which would assure eventually the triumph of their " unappreciated rights."

Tanners' strike, Châteaurenault.

A strike in which arbitration was successfully applied took place among the working tanners of the firm *Bienvenue et Cie* at Châteaurenault, in the end of 1892. The cause of the strike was a demand for increased wages. It commenced on November 28th, and was only terminated in January 25th, 1893. Initiative in application of the new law of conciliation and arbitration, December 27th, 1892, was taken by the *juge de paix* directly after its promulgation, in default of initiative by the disputing parties. Several unavailing attempts at conciliation under the provisions of the law were made. The first meeting took place on January 11th, before Lucien Davoy, *juge de paix* of the Canton Châteaurenault in the *arrondissement* Tours (Indre-et-Loire). Five working tanners and curriers' delegates appeared for the one side, and two members of the firm Bienvenue for the other. These stated that 54 workmen out of 84 had left the works of *Bienvenue aîné et Cie.* on November 28th, and that the cause was alleged by them to be insufficient wage. The preliminaries having been settled, the workmen opened the debate (*pris la parole*), and expressed surprise that MM. Bienvenue had not appeared in person to defend their action, and stated that they themselves desired conciliation rather than arbitration. The delegates for the firm replied that they (MM. Bienvenue) had every wish to act in conformity with the law, and that this permitted them to send delegates. The claims then put forward by the workmen were: (1) a price of 10 francs the 100 kilos. of dried, glazed, and cut hides; (2) 40 centimes an hour for time-work at the river, and in the drying rooms; (3) 30 centimes an hour for work in the yards, beginning at the age of 16.

MM. Foucher and Aubin, the delegates for the employers, then put forward a tariff in the name of their principals: (1) specifying rates varying from 4f. 50c. to 17f. for various kinds of hides; (2) offering 1f. 40c. per hide for every sort treated at the river; (3) and 3 francs a day (of 12 hours) for men and lads working in the court, the latter to be chosen by capacity and not by age.

The working delegates then replied that they could not accept any alteration in their own terms, and asked for a postponement of the consultation until the 13th, when they should have consulted their fellow workers. MM. Foucher and Aubin promised that a member of the firm would meet the workers at the date specified.

When the meeting took place the workers objected to the presence of the delegates of the employers along with a member of the firm, M. Nioré. They retired, and M. Nioré then asked for arrangement of an arbitration. No agreement on the subject of arbitrators could be arrived at, but at another meeting on January 18th, an arrangement was made. Three working curryers, outside the disputing parties, were nominated on behalf of the workers, and two master curriers on behalf of the employers. At a meeting of the arbitrators on January 23rd, the following award was given:—

(1.) In the currying and glazing departments prices to be paid varying from 18 francs to 4f. 50c., the greater part of this tariff being that proposed by MM. Foucher and Aubin.

(2.) For work by the river 1 franc 40 per hide of every kind.

(3.) The work in the yards to be paid entirely according to the aptitude of the men "in accordance with " the just appreciation of the employers and their " old customs." This was unanimously agreed on by the arbitrators.

(4.) In case of strike while hides are still in the water the 1f. 40c. mentioned in Article (2) to be paid only after completion of the task.

This arbitration was accepted and put into force from January 24th.

The following table shows the strikes in 1892 from the point of view of the trades:—

Trades.	No. of Strikes.	No. of Days' work lost.
A.—*Mining, Quarrying, and Engineering Trades.*		
1. Mines	15	255,000
2. Quarries	5	6,000
3. Iron, engineering, and metal works	40	61,000
B.—*Transport and Agriculture.*		
1. Railways	1	60
2. Other forms of transport	14	125,000
3. Agriculture and forests	6	235,000
C.—*Textiles, Clothing and Miscellaneous Trades.*		
1. Textiles	79	82,000
2. Clothing, dyeing, &c.	5	900
3. Chemicals	3	150
4. Printing trades	5	850
5. Provision trades	4	10,000
6. Leather	14	35,000
7. Cabinet trade	23	35,000
8. Cutting and polishing stones	15	46,000
9. Construction and canal works	32	29,000
Totals	261	920,960

TABLE, showing CAUSES and RESULTS OF STRIKES, 1892.

Chief causes or Claims of Strikers.	Successful.	Compromise.	Defeat.	Unknown.	Total.
Demand for increase in wages.	31	31	39	2	103
Against reduction of wages	10	17	31	—	58
Demand for reduction of hours.	2	10	5	—	17
Miscellaneous disputes about wages.	11	6	20	1	38
Refusal by employers of general rights or rules claimed by syndicates.	3	1	1	—	5
Dismissal of workmen	2	6	12	1	21
Demand for dismissal of members of staff.	4	5	26	—	35
Protests against fines and regulations of works.	6	5	3	—	14
Demand for reform of relief and pension funds.	—	1	—	—	1

Of all these strikes, 138 lasted for one week or less; 50 from 8 to 15 days; 27 from 16 to 30 days; 30 from 31 to 100 days; 5 for more than 100. In 11 cases the duration was unknown.

TABLE of STRIKES in 1892 by Departments.

Departments.	Number of Strikes.	Number of Days of Work lost during the Strikes.
1. Ain	—	—
2. Aisne	3	7,500
3. Allier	4	5,500
4. Alpes (Basses)	1	400
5. Alpes (Hautes)	1	35
6. Alpes (Maritimes)	—	—
7. Ardèche	2	4,700
8. Ardennes	10	8,500
9. Ariège	1	130
10. Aube	4	5,500
11. Aude	1	700
12. Aveyron	2	120
13. Bouches-du-Rhône	—	—
14. Calvados	2	39
15. Cantal	—	—
16. Charente	—	—
17. Charente-Inférieure	2	1,700
18. Cher	8	170,000
19. Correze	—	—
20. Corse	2	475
21. Côte-d'-Or	2	—
22. Côtes-du-Nord	2	700

Departments.	Number of Strikes.	Number of Days of Work lost during the Strikes.
23. Creuse	—	—
24. Dordogne	1	600
25. Doubs	3	4,400
26. Drôme	—	—
27. Eure	1	1,000
28. Eure-et-Loire	—	—
29. Finistere	1	5,000
30. Gard	2	800
31. Garonne (Haute)	2	6,500
32. Gers	—	—
33. Gironde	4	11,000
34. Hérault	7	17,000
35. Ille-et-Vilaine	3	350
36. Indre	2	6,800
37. Indre-et-Loire	5	350
38. Isere	1	6,800
39. Jura	1	3,600
40. Landes	—	—
41. Loire-et-Cher	3	26,000
42. Loire	6	21,000
43. Loire-Haute	—	—
44. Loire (Inférieure)	2	7,000
45. Loiret	2	4,600
46. Lot	—	—
47. Lot-et-Garonne	2	1,000
48. Lozère	—	—
49. Maine-et-Loire	8	2,200
50. Manche	—	—
51. Marne	11	13,000
52. Marne (Haute)	1	325
53. Mayenne	1	1,200
54. Meurthe-et-Moselle	3	1,800
55. Meuse	1	—
56. Morbihan	6	600
57. Nièvre	4	10,000
58. Nord	54	60,000
59. Oise	7	2,400
60. Orne	—	—
61. Pas-du-Calais	10	3,300
62. Puy-de-Dôme	—	—
63. Pyrénées (Basses)	—	—
64. Pyrénées (Hautes)	1	170
65. Pyrénées (Orientales)	1	60
66. Territoire de Belfort	—	—
67. Rhône	5	100
68. Saône (Haute)	1	220
69. Saône-et-Loire	—	—
70. Sarthe	—	—
71. Savoie	—	—
72. Savoie (Haute)	—	—
73. Seine	31	150,000
74. Seine Inférieure	7	11,000
75. Seine-et-Marne	2	300
76. Seine-et-Oise	3	300
77. Sèvres (Deux)	—	—
78. Somme	—	—
79. Tarn	6	240,000
80. Tarn-et-Garonne	—	—
81. Var	—	—
82. Vaucluse	1	120
83. Vendée	—	—
84. Vienne	—	—
85. Vienne (Haute)	1	35
86. Vosges	2	4,400
87. Yonne	1	450
Total	263	920,000

N.B.—One strike (among wood-cutters) extended to three departments, and this brings up the total to two more than in the last table.

APPENDIX XIX.

EXPLANATIONS of certain LEGAL and POLITICAL TERMS not already given in the TEXT.

Conseil Communal ou municipal; maire.—The municipal body in each commune is composed of a municipal council, a mayor, and one or more assistants (see law of April 4, 1884, Article 1). The law of 1884 in giving the Municipal Council a foremost place, was intended to put into application the principle of universal suffrage, and Article 76 of this law lays down that the mayor holds his office in virtue of election by universal suffrage. It is in his quality of president of the council that he walks always at the head of it. In principle the exercise of municipal functions is gratuitous, but the law has especially reserved the power of granting re-imbursements to members and the mayors out of ordinary communal resources. Since the law of March 28, 1882, the mayor has been elected from among the councillors by ballot in the council, and by an absolute majority, in all the communes, except Paris. The mayor takes precedence in public functions immediately after the President of the Tribunal of Commerce, and if he is a Catholic has an *ex officio* place on certain ecclesiastical bodies (*conseil de fabrique, banc d'œuvre*). His attributes vary according as he is considered an agent of the central power or of the communal association.

A. The first of his attributes under the former head is the publication or posting up (to be carefully distinguished from the promulgation) of laws, administrative orders, and prefectoral resolutions (*arrêtés préfectoraux*).

The mayor is also charged by the higher administrative powers—(1) with the carrying into effect of laws and administrative orders of general measures relating to safety and public order; (2) with the fulfilment of special functions, such as registration of the civil state of citizens, control of the police, and matters appertaining the administrative law.

B. As head of the communal administration the mayor may formulate special resolutions (*prend des arrêtés*) on local affairs generally confided to his care, *e.g.*, sanitation; he also has to defend the financial interests of the commune, and to represent it when necessary in the law courts.

If resolutions taken by the mayor are of a temporary character they may be put into operation immediately after notice of them has been sent to and acknowledged by the sub-prefect, without objection on the part of the prefect; if they apply permanently they must remain under consideration of the prefect for not less than one month. "The mayor is the link joining the adminis-" tration and the administered. He sees to the " effective operation of the laws of the higher authori-" ties. Although hierarchically subordinated to the " prefect and the Minister, his powers are extended " and varied, while limited to his own commune."

The number of municipal councillors in a commune varies with the population, and may be 10 for 500 inhabitants, or less, 12 for 500 to 1,500, 16 up to 2,500, and 50 on. The prefect determines the number after each quinquennial census.

(*See* Block, *Dictionnaire de l'Administration Française.* Articles, *Organisation Communal, Administration.*)

Conseil d'Etat.—This is the chief council of the head of the State and his Ministers. It assists in the preparation of laws and administrative orders in all departments of the public service. It also has to decide or pronounce judgment on litigations arising within the domain of administrative law (see *Droit administratif*). "In " some cases it is the court of first instance, but it is " more often a court of appeal, sometimes even a court " of cassation for administrative affairs." The institution of the Council of State is traditional in France, although its actual composition has varied at different epochs. It is now composed—(1) of 32 ordinary State councillors, and 18 extraordinary; (2) of 30 *maîtres des quêtes*; (3) of 36 auditors and a secretary-general. The presidency of the council belongs to the office of the Keeper of the Seals and Minister of Justice. The

other Ministers have a place in the general assembly of the council, but they have no concern with litigations, and only deliberate upon the affairs belonging to their own Ministry. The President of the Republic nominates the vice-president of the council, and the presidents of sections (see Block, cited, Dicey, Law of the Constitution, Lecture V).

Conseil de Préfecture.—This institution is one of the elements of the executive system founded at the beginning of the century. It has judicial as well as executive functions to fulfil, and is the administrative (or executive) tribunal, which takes cognisance of the most varied matters, although it has not a universal jurisdiction like the civil tribunal. It only pronounces judgment on certain categories of affairs which are expressly confided to its care by the laws. Appeal from its decisions lies to the Conseil d'Etat. Besides its legal attributes the Conseil de Préfecture is specially charged with repression of certain contraventions and auditing of communal accounts. The numbers of members of the Council of the Prefect vary. In the Seine department there are nine, including the president, and in 29 others, including *e.g.*, Nord, Rhône, Loire, Bouches du Rhône, there are four councillors. In a certain number there are only three members. The importance of the affairs to be administered in the Seine department have led to the institution there of a permanent president of the council (see below, *Prefet de la Seine*). The councillors in all the departments are nominated by the head of the State (*Chef de l'Etat*). (See Block, cited.)

The *Conseil Général* is an assembly of an elective character for each department, which is entrusted with the care of certain special interests of that district, and which also exercises certain functions from the point of view of general interests which are delegated to it by the State. Each canton of the department elects a member of the *Conseil Général* by universal suffrage. Members may not be chosen among prefects or other members of the prefecture, *procureurs généraux*, *juges de paix* and certain other legal and state officers. (See Block's Dictionary for further information.)

Cour de Cassation.—This institution which "is intended to lead the various tribunals of France to a "strict observation of the forms of the law and to maintain a uniformity of jurisprudence amongst them," was founded by the law of December 1, 1790. At first the members of the court were elected for four years with re-eligibility at the end of the term. Since 1815 the members have been 49 judges, appointed for life, and from among these a president and three vice-presidents are chosen. Since 1826 the court has been divided into three chambers, viz., The chamber of requests, the civil chamber and the criminal chamber; these may unite in formal sitting (*audience solennelle*). The functions of the court were defined by the law of November 27, 1790:—

> "Article 2. The functions of the Court of Cassation are to pronounce on all demands on appeal (*i.e.*, any of the ordinary law courts whether courts of appeal or not) to judge the demands for reference from one tribunal to another . . . on account of conflicts of jurisdiction and rulings of judges . . . . ."
>
> "Article 3. It shall annul all proceedings (*procédures*) in which forms have been violated, and every judgment which contains an express contravention of the text of the law. Under no pretext and in no case may this tribunal take cognisance of the ground of the action; after having quashed the proceedings or judgment it sends back the affair to the competent tribunal."

Droit Administratif.—This term, though not directly used in the text of the report is implied whenever a fundamental distinction existing between French and English law is touched upon. In England, officials of the State are liable before the ordinary law courts like any ordinary citizen in their own persons for damages, in case of acts done in excess of their lawful authority, even if done in official character and in obedience to commands of a superior. In France no official can be brought before the ordinary courts (*la justice*) for the performance of any act done in his official character. He must be tried by the "body of rules which regulate "the relations of the administration or of the administrative authority towards private citizens."(1) At the head of all the administrative courts stands the Conseil d'Etat. Professor Dicey describes *Droit Administratif* as "that portion of French law which determines, (i.) The position and liability of all State "officials; (ii.) the civil rights and liabilities of "private individuals in their dealings with officials as "representative of the State; (iii.) the procedure by "which these rights and liabilities are enforced." According to M. Block the relations of the administration with the ordinary law courts (*avec la justice*) are of a delicate nature. The two authorities are parallel and independent of each other; they "mutually "complete each other and are equally indispensable to "the well-being of the State." They differ in nature, because judicial authority is delegated to immoveable judges while administrative authority is given to removable functionaries. They differ in power, because the administration has the power of initiative and of prescribing, while ordinary justice only judges. They differ in object, because the administration is entrusted with care of general interests, while ordinary justice has intended to solve the difficulties which arise through conflict of private interests.

The vagueness of these descriptions would lead one *à priori* to expect a debatable land between the two spheres of law. As a matter of fact there exists of necessity in France a special, tribunal the *Tribunal des Conflits*, which has to decide on conflicts of jurisdiction. "The special function of this body is to "determine finally whether a given case," say an action against a policeman for an assault, "comes within the "jurisdiction of the civil courts or of the administrative courts."

Ester en Justice.—To be a party to an action before a tribunal or judge, either as plaintiff or defendant.

Juge de Paix.—The justices of the peace in France (like certain courts of a special character, such as the tribunals of commerce) are an exception to the general rule of irremoveability of judges. Under a name borrowed from England the Assembly of 1790 created an institution peculiar to France, which has survived all subsequent changes. Originally each canton elected a *juge de paix* and two assessors; since 1814 the head of the Government alone nominates or revokes a *juge de paix*. The fundamental principle of the institution is that the justice of the peace should act as a moderating or conciliating power. No affairs can be brought before the tribunals of the arrondissement without first being cited before the justice of the peace. When the justice decides as judge he sometimes acts as a court of first instance, sometimes without appeal. He may never decide on questions belonging to the commercial or administrative tribunals, but may give judgment on questions outside those spheres relating to personal or moveable property (*de l'ordre civil*) up to 100 francs if it is without appeal, up to 200 francs if it is in first instance. Certain special laws provide for intervention of the *juge de paix* in some cases of infraction of the customs laws. (For procedure, &c., *see* Block, article *Juridictions Civiles*.)

Prefet de la Seine.—The Prefect of the Seine is nominated by decree, at the instance of the Minister of the Interior, like other prefects, but is of exceptional rank, and has a special yearly provision (*traitement*) of 50,000 francs. His secretary also is of exceptional position and receives 18,000 francs yearly. The Prefect of the Seine is at the same time the representative of the State, the administrator of the department, and (except where police affairs are concerned), the Mayor of Paris.

Procès Verbal.—The legal statement of a fact or facts (*fait*) by a public official or agent (whether belonging to the administration or to the civil courts) is called a *procès verbal* (*see* Block, *procès verbal*).

Procureurs Généraux.—Public functionaries attached for the safeguarding of public order and morality to all the various courts and tribunals of France, excepting only the Councils of the Prefects, the tribunals of Commerce, justices of the peace, and councils of experts.

Tribunal d'Arrondissement. — These tribunals are something more than the term suggests, for in certain cases they apply to more than one arrondissement. They cannot be considered as courts of first instance only, for they act as courts of appeal from decisions of the *juge de paix*, nor can they be considered as purely civil courts, for they also judge in certain commercial

(1) Dicey, Law of the Constitution, p. 184, quoting from Aucoc.

cases and take cognisance of certain misdemeanours (*délits*). In the latter sphere they are known as *tribunaux correctionnels*.

The number of judges on these tribunals varies from 3 to 12 according to population. They are divided into three classes, outside the Seine department: (1) those sitting in towns containing 80,000 inhabitants; (2) those in towns containing 20,000 inhabitants; those in towns of less than 20,000 inhabitants. (For a full account of their competence and procedure, *see* Block's Dictionary, article "Jurisdictions Civiles.")

Règlement Administratif.—This is to be distinguished from the *Règlement d'Administration Publique*. The latter, which is referred to so often in the text of the report, is a "complementary legislative act, the preparation of which has been specially delegated to the head of the State by an express or special provision of the law."

The former term applies to a spontaneous action of the Government formulating an assemblage of prescriptions, binding upon all citizens or a certain category of citizens, and this in virtue of general powers conferred on the head of the Government by constitutional laws.

Tribunal de simple Police.—This jurisdiction appertains exclusively to the *juges de paix*. The police courts take cognisance of contraventions of laws punishable by fines up to 15 francs, or imprisonment for five days. The judgment is only one of first instance and is subject to appeal where imprisonment is inflicted.

Tribunal Commerciale.—These are elective tribunals to be found wherever commercial interests are of sufficient importance to call for such an institution. They take cognisance of commercial disputes which ordinarily come before the civil courts, but only at first instance and subject to appeal. The latest statistics showed that there were 222 such courts in France.

The election of judges to serve on them is for two years. Each court is composed of a president, of a certain number of judges not more than 14 and not less than two, and a certain number of deputy judges in a suitable proportion.

APPENDIX XX.

Decree of March 25, 1852, regulating Bureaux de Placement.(1)

Article 1.—In future no person may open a registry office under any pretext or for any trades whatsoever, without a special permission, given by the municipal authority to those persons only who are of recognised character. Actual possessors of registry offices are allowed a period of three months in which to provide themselves with this permission.

Article 2.—The request for a permission should furnish a statement of the conditions under which the applicant proposes to carry on his trade. He is bound to conform not only to these conditions but to any further orders which may be issued under Article 3.

Article 3.—The municipal authority shall so supervise the registry offices that it is assured of the maintenance of order in their conduct. It shall also draw up the necessary resolutions to this effect, and regulate the rate of fees charged by the owner of the office.

Article 4.—Every contravention of Article 1, or the second paragraph of Article 2, or of regulations made in virtue of Article 3, shall be punished by a fine of 1 franc to 15 francs with an imprisonment of not more than five days, or by only one of these punishments. The maximum punishment allowed shall always be inflicted where the offender has undergone a sentence for contravention of the present decree, or the police regulations above referred to, within the preceding 12 months. These punishments do not include the restitutions or damages due on account of the actions imputed to the owner of the office. Article 463 of the Penal Code is applicable to the contraventions above indicated.

Article 5.—The municipal authority may withdraw permission:—(1) from individuals who have incurred or are about to incur sentences under Articles 15 and 16 of the decree of February 2, 1852; (2) from individuals who have been or are about to undergo sentence for coalition; (3) from those who have been sentenced to imprisonment for contravention of the present decree or of resolutions issued under Article 3.

Article 6.—The powers above conferred on the municipal authority shall be exercised by the Prefect of Police for Paris and the province of his jurisdiction, and by the Prefect of the Rhône for Lyons and the other communes in which he fulfils the functions attributed to him by the law of June 24, 1851.

Article 7.—Withdrawals of permission and orders issued by the municipal authority are not binding until after the approval of the prefect.

APPENDIX XXI.

Note on Industrial and Agricultural Technical Education.

There is no completely organised system of technical education (*i.e.*, industrial as distinct from agricultural) in France, but technical schools, national, departmental, communal, and private, exist in most important centres, and may be considered under the heads: primary, secondary, and higher. It is only the first class of schools that is specially regulated as to course of instruction by laws. The national and departmental schools of apprentices (*écoles professionnelles ou d'apprentissage*) and the communal primary technical schools are specially recognised or provided for by the law of December 11, 1880, and by decrees of March 17 and July 28, 1888, which further determine the conditions under which the law shall apply. The law was promoted by its supporters with a view to filling the gap left by the decay of the old industrial system of apprenticeship and the rise of the factory system. These schools are placed under the double authority of the Minister of Public Instruction and the Minister of Commerce and Industry. National schools are created by a decree after proposition by two Ministers. Departmental and communal schools are authorised by the Minister of Public Instruction on advice (*sur l'avis conforme*) from the Minister of Commerce and Industry, and also after advice from a delegate for both these Ministers and from the Departmental Committee of Public Instruction. When a general council (*Conseil Général*) desires to found a school, with or without co-operation of the communes, it takes a resolution setting forth the expenses which will be at the charge of a department. When it is a commune that desires to found a school the procedure is the same as in the case of establishment of ordinary primary schools.

Each school has attached to it a local committee formed by local government and municipal officials. The director and staff of a national school are nominated by the two Ministers above mentioned. In the case of a departmental school they are nominated by the prefect, and in a communal school by the mayor. State funds provide for the national schools, while in departmental and communal schools general expenses of maintenance are provided out of primary education, funds and staff expenses out of local general funds.

(1) *See* "Le Placement des Ouvriers," p. 134, Paris, 1893.

The schools are under the ordinary system of inspection for primary education, as well as being subject to special inspection determined by the Ministers. No child enters these schools under 12 years of age, and the course is then three years at least. To a certain complement of primary instruction the primary technical school adds teaching in drawing, applied science, and manual work. The first of all these schools was established by special decree at Vierzon to serve as a model for subsequent attempts. But the school which is still considered one of the finest in France was established by the Municipality at Havre in 1866. It was designed for and admirably fulfils the purpose of supplying skilled workers and foremen for workshops in iron and wood industries. The instruction, which is theoretical and practical, includes, (1) under the former head, the French language, history, geography, arithmetic, elements of physics, chemistry, mechanics, political economy, hygiene, algebra (elementary), geometrical and freehand drawing, (2) under the second head, lock-making, forging, founding and moulding, coppersmiths' work, cabinet and furniture making, carving, and modelling. The number of pupils is 250, all of whom are day scholars (*externats*), and the expenses annually 58,000 francs.

Secondary technical education generally aims at forming managers and directors of industrial undertakings. There are four national schools of arts and crafts for this end, one of them founded in 1788 by the Duke de la Rochefoucauld-Liancourt at Compiègne, which was removed in 1806 to Châlons. These schools are regulated by a decree of April 4, 1885, and are partly for boarders. The instruction in theoretical subjects is very extended in scope, and includes various branches of mathematics, pure and applied, applied science and construction of machinery, geography, history, industrial finance, and hygiene. Practical instruction is given in the trades relating to iron and wood.

Higher technical education aims so far at forming engineers, and is provided by the Central School of Arts and Manufactures, the National Conservatoire of Arts and Crafts, the School of Bridges, Causeways, and Mines, the School of Telegraphy, and the School of State Manufactures.

Agricultural education is relatively new in France, but has already been highly organised. Governmental initiative in this direction began in 1848, but it should be noted that the first attempt was made in 1818 by Matthieu de Dombasle. He founded a school at Roville specially designed for peasant proprietors and stewards of larger properties. The example was followed, but no system was founded until the State came to the aid of farm-schools which were designed for the instruction of the agricultural labourer. At the time when the law of October 3, 1848, was passed there were 25 farm-schools besides the Institutes of Grignon and Grand-Jouan. This law organised a scale of instruction as follows:—Primary, the farm-schools; secondary, the district schools; higher, a national institute for the theory of agriculture. Various subsequent decrees and laws modified the system. At the present day there are four stages. There are 30 farm schools and schools of agricultural apprentices, where practical instruction is given in various kinds of cultures and dairy farming. Then follow the secondary schools, which give a certain amount of theoretical teaching. Thirdly, the national schools of agriculture are designed to train large farmers in the theory and practice of farming and rural administration. Finally there is the *Institut National Agronomique*, re-constituted by the law of August 9th, 1876, which holds a somewhat similar position in agriculture to that occupied in the letters, arts and sciences by the various academies of the *Institut de France*.

Auxiliary instruction in agriculture is provided for by departmental chairs, courses, and fields for experiments. (*See* Block's Dict. de l'Administration Française, articles *Enseignment Agricultural*, *Enseignment Technique*.)

APPENDIX XXII.

REGULATIONS drawn up by M. ÉMILE THOMAS for the NATIONAL WORKSHOPS in 1848.

REPUBLIC OF FRANCE.[1]

NATIONAL WORKS.

REGULATIONS FOR ENROLMENT IN BRIGADES.

§ I. Enrolment in brigades will take place for the different districts (*arrondissements*) in the order, and at the time indicated by an order of the day sent to the offices of the mayors.

§ II. No enrolment in brigades takes place on Sundays or national holidays.

§ III. In order to be enrolled a workman must—

(*a.*) Certify at the office of the mayor of his district, that he is over 16 years of age, or else fatherless, or the eldest of a family of six children.

(*b.*) He must appear in person, and only on the day and at the hour specified for his district, provided with a note bearing his name, calling, address, the stamp of the mayor of his district, and dated at least the day previous to the enrolment.

(*c.*) If a workman is on guard on the day of admission for his district, he shall ask leave from the officer in charge of the guard in order to go to the central bureau.

(*d.*) A workman who desires to be enrolled in a brigade which has already been formed, must appear in person on the day and at the time fixed for his district, with a message from the chief of that brigade, stating his own number, that of the company and of the service.

(*e.*) A workman who has lost his book shall call at the inquiry office with a certificate from the chief of his company, in order to obtain a fresh one; he shall then pay 50 centimes.

(*f.*) The workmen shall enter by brigades made up of 56 of the men who are present. Each brigade which presents itself incomplete shall be completed by the latest arrivals of the following brigade. No brigade shall start uncompleted from the bureau of enrolment, except the last.

(*g.*) Brigadiers and chiefs of squads are elected beforehand by the workmen; but their brigade or squad may be taken to fill up incomplete lists belonging to the same district. Their nomination is not confirmed until after the enrolment in brigades.

(*h.*) Every day a lieutenant sent by the head of the district shall come to announce the service numbers of the companies and brigades to which newly-enrolled workmen belong, in order that these numbers may be entered on their books. These books, moreover, shall bear the names and addresses of the managers (*chefs de service*) of the heads of companies, of the lieutenants, brigadiers, and heads of squads.

The Commissary of the Republic,
Director of National Works,
ÉMILE THOMAS.

REPUBLIC OF FRANCE.

MINISTRY OF PUBLIC WORKS.

NATIONAL WORKS.

GENERAL REGULATIONS FOR WORKMEN ENGAGED ON THE WORKS OR AWAITING ENGAGEMENT.

The Commissary of the Republic, Director of the National Works, considering that different orders of the

[1] Histoire des Ateliers Nationaux, pp 59-73.

day have hitherto regulated the measures adopted for the administration of these works:

That it is important to combine in one regulation the different orders of the day enumerated above:

Enacts the following provisions which have been discussed in a council of heads of the districts, and laid before the assembly of workmen's delegates engaged in the national works, who have adopted them in their entirety.

The payment of brigadiers, heads of squads, and workmen are fixed as follows:—

Days of Work.

	fr.	c.	
Brigadiers	3	0	per day.
Heads of squads	2	50	
Workmen	2	0	

Non-working Days.

	fr.	c.	
Brigadiers	3	0	per day.
Heads of squads	1	50	
Workmen	1	0	

On Sundays work is suspended; brigadiers, heads of squads, and workmen receive no pay.

No person enrolled in a brigade shall be entitled to two days' work until after the first Monday following his enrolment.

Heads of squads, and workmen selected for guard duty on any day except Sundays, or legal holidays, shall be considered as discharging a public duty, and shall be entitled to the payment accorded for days of active work, provided that within 24 hours they deliver to the chief of their company the document summoning them on guard, stamped with the seal of the staff officer of their legion, which document must bear the Christian name of the workman. After 24 hours the document will not accepted.

The document, handed as aforesaid to the head of the company, shall be transmitted to the director through the manager (*chef de service*) stating the district, the service, the company, and the brigade to which the workman belongs.

Extra guard duty, and similar duty when performed as a punishment, are excepted from the above provisions.

Lieutenants and brigadiers are exempted from national guard duty by the head of the district, who shall write to the sergeant-major who has summoned them.

The list of the men who have received the indemnity for guard duty shall be forwarded on the Monday and Tuesday of each week, at one o'clock, to the office of the sub-directorate of M. Dellisse, with the names and addresses of the men who have been summoned.

Men who are ill and confined to bed, and not admitted to the hospitals, receive without distinction, the payment of two francs per day from the special agents of the medical bureau if their state of health has been previously attested by a medical certificate, registered by the commissary of police, and verified by one of the doctors of the central bureau.

Men admitted to the hospitals shall not be paid, as the State bears the cost of the hospital treatment; if they are married their wives and children shall receive indoor relief.

The family of every workman admitted to the hospital in consequence of injuries sustained during work receives the wages payable to the latter when not engaged in actual work.

On days when the weather is considered too bad for the proper execution of the works, operations shall be suspended. The head of the district shall decide as to the possibility of carrying on the work.

Any workman who, having presented himself in his turn for work, leaves without the permission of the manager, shall be considered as absent.

Should he obtain leave to absent himself there will be deducted, at the time of payment, quarter, half, or three-quarters of the day's pay, according to the time at which he has left.

With a view to simplifying and reducing the number of separate accounts the squad roll sheets are from this day suppressed, and new roll sheets by brigades will be established after the following model:—

PUBLIC WORK. REPUBLIC OF FRANCE. NATIONAL WORK.

ROLL SHEET.

Arrondissement. Service. Company.
Day of Brigade. 1848.

Squad No.	Consecutive Number.	Surnames, Christian Names and Ranks. The Brigadier should place his Name and Signature first.	Wages to pay.	Sums paid.	Fines.	Signature.	Remarks. State cause of Punishment, Absence, &c.

Companies not occupied in active work shall receive payment in a place determined by the manager, and of which the lieutenants, brigadiers, and chiefs of squads shall be notified.

Payment will begin at half-past three, and conclude at half-past four.

The lieutenants are responsible for the payment to the heads of their companies. This payment shall be made, under the superintendence of the lieutenant, by the brigadiers, assisted by a pay clerk.

The roll sheet bears the names of the 56 men who make up a brigade, including the brigadier and the heads of squads. This sheet shall be delivered on the preceding day to the brigadier, who shall first write his name at the top and then enter those of his 55 men. Each man must always occupy the same place in the numerical order of the poll sheet.

When the head of a brigade pays a workman, he shall make the latter sign opposite to his name in the column provided for that purpose. Anyone refusing to sign shall not be paid. If the workman is unable to sign, a man belonging to his squad, and the delegate of the same, shall certify by their signatures that the payment took place in their presence.

The workman, on receiving his pay, shall hand his book to the brigadier, who shall initial it, inserting the date, and the sum paid.

The lieutenant shall receive the roll sheet from the brigadier, and return it, immediately after the payment has concluded, to the head of his company, so that the latter may in his turn send it back to his manager.

Fines for Breaches of Regulations.

Heads of brigades whose roll sheets are not drawn up as prescribed by the present regulation shall be liable to a fine of one franc. In the case of serious irregularities they shall be dismissed.

Any workman who, without just cause, fails to reply when his name is called, shall not be paid, unless his absence be duly justified on the following day.

Any workman who, without just cause, has on two successive occasions failed to reply to his name at pay-time, shall be struck off the lists.

A daily report of the fines shall be transmitted by the managers to the heads of the district.

Any brigadier, head of a squad, or workman fined three times in one fortnight shall be struck off the lists.

Fines are inflicted on workmen by the heads of companies on the reports of the brigadiers and lieutenants.

The accumulated fines shall be distributed every fortnight among the workmen of each brigade.

SPECIAL PROVISIONS AFFECTING BRIGADIERS AND HEADS OF SQUADS.

No chief elected by the workmen may resign his post, except for very grave reasons, of which the administration shall be the judge.

A stoppage of 5 francs shall be made from the pay of chiefs of squads, for the purpose shown further on under the article "Tools."

Stoppages shall be made from the pay of brigadiers, the total of which will form a guarantee of 15 francs. When this sum has been reached no further stoppage shall be made.

Tickets for Relief in Kind.

Tickets for bread, meat, and soup are distributed at the relieving office, 4, Rue de Chartres, between 8 a.m. and 4 p.m. every day to the indigent fathers of families belonging to each brigade, in the following proportion, and on presentation of the list given by the delegate, verified and visad by the chief of the company.

Bread.

No. of children.	Kilo-grams.	Weight. (Avoir.) lbs. ozs.
1	¼	0 9
2	½	1 1
3	¾	1 10
4	1	2 3
5	1¼	2 12
6	1½	3 5
7	1¾	3 13
8	2	4 6
9	2¼	4 15
10	2½	5 8

Bread and Meat.

(1.) Fathers of families who are ill and treated at the hospital are not paid. Their wives and children shall receive assistance in bread, meat, and soup daily.

(2.) Fathers of families who are ill, but are treated at their own homes, receive working pay—that is to say, two francs; medicines and medical attendance are rendered gratis. In this case they are only entitled to the allowance of bread, meat, and soup granted to all indigent fathers of families.

General Regulations.

(3.) For families numbering from six to ten children and over, the distribution of food shall take place three times a week.

For families of three to five children, twice a week.

For families of one to two children, once a week.

Medical Office.

An office is organised under the direction of the Chief Physicians Bujeon and Gaston Gaudinot, 14, Avenue Chateaubriand.

The workmen engaged in the national works alone are admitted—

(1.) For consultation, which takes place every day between the hours of 8 and 10 in the morning.

(2.) For the delivery of applications from sick persons confined to bed for domiciliary visits, daily between the hours of 8 and 4. These visits are made by the chief and assistant physicians.

Consultations.

All workmen who are ill are admitted to consultation on presenting their book. They receive (1) advice, medicine, and the dressing of any wounds or injuries; (2) temporary dispensations from work, in the case of simple indisposition; such dispensations may not exceed the term of 10 days.

For any workman who presents himself for consultation, and only obtains a medical prescription, without dispensation from work, the fixing of the seal and date on his book shall certify to the brigadier that the workman has presented himself for consultation without receiving the indemnity, and that he is entitled to the pay of one franc.

Domiciliary Visits.

Workmen confined to bed receive domiciliary visits in response to an application transmitted by the head of their brigade or delegate, and addressed to the medical bureau, open between the hours of 8 and 4. In case of urgency patients may apply to the physician nominated by the administration.

Twelve physicians are attached to the medical office; a list of the patients whom they have to visit is sent to them every morning. These patients receive attendance on the same day. In case of urgency patients may, as already stated in the order of the day of May 10th, apply to the nearest doctor, who shall receive two francs for his visit. The patient must, at the same time, give notice to the medical office, so that the physician of the administration may visit him on the following day.

The wives and children of workmen are likewise entitled to medical assistance.

The delegates shall receive the list of the addresses of the physicians in the various districts.

The applicant, in case of simple indisposition, receives—

(1.) Advice; medicines, which are supplied by certain stated apothecaries; and a few days' dispensation from work, towards which he will be assisted with 1 f. 25 c. per day. Only workmen confined to bed, and who have families dependent on them, shall be entitled to the pay of 2 francs.

(2.) In the case of serious illnesses requiring a period of more than 10 days, workmen must obtain admission to a hospital, or apply to the ordinary physicians of the benevolent institutions.

Payment and Assistance to Sick Persons.

1. Workmen who, after consultation, have received a dispensation from work, shall receive, in addition to attendance and medicine, a sum of 1 f. 25 c. per day until the expiration of that period. This payment shall be made at the medical office by the cashier, who shall sign his name below the seal of the medical department. He shall only remit 25 centimes for each day's leave. The pay of 1 franc is to be remitted to the house by the delegate of the brigade.

The payment allowed by the physician to a patient confined to bed shall each day be discharged by the medical office.

The physician summoned to the house of a sick workman shall in case of urgency attend to the family of the latter.

Workmen at the Works.

The heads of companies, lieutenants, brigadiers, heads of squads, and workmen must be assembled at half-past six at the meeting place, whence they are to set out for the works.

The head of the district shall determine the hour of arrival at the works according to the distance to be traversed by the men in order to reach them.

The meal times are fixed as follows:—

Morning meal, 1 hour, 9 to 10.
Evening meal, 1 hour, 2 to 3.

Work shall cease at six o'clock in the evening.

Two roll-calls at least shall be undertaken every day by the heads of companies. Any inspector passing through the works may demand a supplementary roll-call from the head of a company, or, in the absence of the latter, from the lieutenants, or even from the brigadiers.

Any workman failing to answer incurs a fine of 25 centimes. Failure to respond at two calls entails the loss of a day's pay.

Any workman who fails during two days to appear at his yard shall be struck off the lists, except in one of the circumstances provided for by the above order of the day regulating payment.

Any workman leaving the works for a moment without the permission of the head or deputy head of the company shall be fined 50 centimes.

The delegates shall not make inquiries of the workmen, nor receive their claims during working hours.

Only the central delegates shall be admitted to the relieving offices; they must present the lists which have been handed them by the three other delegates.

Any workman neglecting his work, on being reported by the chief of his company, by the lieutenant, or inspector, shall be fined 50 centimes.

All gaming is prohibited during working hours; infractions of this clause shall entail a fine of 50 centimes.

Any workman, or person in charge of a squad or brigade, refusing to obey his superiors, or found under the influence of drink on the works, shall forfeit his day's pay. If he repeat the offence he shall be struck off the lists.

Under certain circumstances of a grave nature, not provided for in the regulations, the head of the district is authorised to suspend any officer or workman from his duties pending the decision of the administration. A report on the step taken shall be immediately made to the director.

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Shri Brihad Bhartiya Samaj
on 24 February, 2020

No officer elected by the workmen can be deprived of his office until the matter has been inquired into by the administration.

Every workman must carry his book about his person, and show it at the first request of one of his superiors.

The heads of squads are always at the disposal of the brigadier and the delegate to aid them in their duties.

Any brigadier or head of a squad deprived of his rank on the report of one of his superiors, may make a written appeal to the director, but should his claims not be found valid, he shall return to the ranks as a simple workman, and shall not be eligible for re-election.

No measure, purchase, or payment is valid without the written authority of the director.

Tools.

The depôt for all tools belonging to the national work, is situated in the rue Chartres, No. 4.

Divisional depôts shall be established in the yard; the tools must be deposited there every evening. Special keepers, selected and appointed by the sub-director of stores, shall be responsible for the tools during the time they are not in use.

The brigadiers shall, every morning and evening, sign the sheet regarding the putting in and taking out of the tools.

All the tools shall be marked "A. N." This mark shall be placed on the sheds by the storekeepers for tools already taken out.

No tool may leave the depôt without a ticket from the head of the service for whom it is intended, registered by the sub-director of stores.

No purchase of a tool shall take place without a written order of the sub-director; this order is to be kept by the merchant to establish his claim for payment.

No tool shall be replaced in the depôt except on presentation to the keeper of a ticket from the sub-director.

No tool shall be used which has not first been entered and sent out from the store in the regular way.

Brigadiers are responsible for all the tools of their brigade. The sum of 15 francs, which is deducted from their pay, shall answer for the consequence of this responsibility.

The person in charge of a squad is answerable to his brigadier for the tools of his squad. The 5 francs deducted from his pay shall also be guarantee for the consequences of this responsibility.

Every workman is responsible to the man in charge of his squad for the tools entrusted to him.

Tools broken or unfit for service, should be returned to the depôt in order that they may be replaced by an equal number of serviceable ones.

Commissary of the Republic,
Director of National Works,
ÉMILE THOMAS.

APPENDIX XXIII.

REPORT on certain SYNDICATES, addressed to the MINISTER OF JUSTICE by the *Procureur-Général* of Douai.

French administrative methods have recently been illustrated by the publication of a confidential report addressed by the Attorney-General of Douai to the Minister of Justice (M. Guérin) and forwarded by him to the President of the Council (M. Dupuy). This document was given in full in *La Petite République*, the organ of M. Millerand, Socialist Deputy, on November 13th. In reply to inquiries of the Minister of Justice, the Attorney-General (M. Chenest) gives details as to the origin and organisation of the syndicates among the miners in the Pas-de-Calais and Nord Departments. The former was established in 1884, the latter formed in 1892 by the amalgamation of several smaller societies; the number enrolled in the syndicate of the Pas-de-Calais miners is estimated as greater than 30,000; no proper record can be obtained in the case of the other syndicate. Both are shown to have failed to comply regularly with the provision of the law of 1884, which exacts an accurate registration of the numbers of the association and of the names of the governing body. Further, it is shown that members are admitted and objects pursued which cannot be described as professional, under the terms of the law. The syndicates are united in a federation, of which, again, no record can be found in the official registers at the Prefectures or Sub-Prefectures. In view of the illegal character of the two syndicates and the federation, their action in connection with strikes, and the avowedly socialistic character of their objects, M. Chenest reports to the Minister of Justice on the advisability of attempting a prosecution. He judges the question to be rather one of a political than a legal character. If these syndicates are not prosecuted it becomes impossible for the department to equitably prosecute any other syndicate for failure to comply with the law. From the point of view of expediency no better moment could be seized for instituting legal proceedings. "The syndicates have just sustained a marked defeat; they have drawn their members into a profitless struggle, and it is certain that they have lost something of their popularity. I do not say that a prosecution may not lead to some agitation among the miners, but my formal opinion, and I know it is that of *M. le Préfet du Pas-de-Calais*, is that a resuscitation of the strike could not result from it. The workmen, defeated and discouraged, only protest very timidly against the heavy blows that the company are dealing on the ranks of their men; they would not protest to any purpose in favour of a syndicate which has lost a notable part of its prestige, and which has led them to defeat. If you decide, *M. le Garde des Sceaux*, to institute proceedings, it will be desirable that I should have your instructions at once. It seems to me indispensable to institute a search immediately at the offices of the syndicates and in the houses of their administrators, with a view to seizure of books and correspondence; amongst the administrators are the two deputies, MM. Basly and Lamendin. If proceedings are not instituted until after Parliament meets, an authorisation from the Chamber will be necessary, and the persons concerned will be warned in time to conceal any compromising documents that they may possess."

(Signed) E. CHENEST.
Procureur-Général.

Douai, 19 Novembre.